UNIVERSITY OF ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE
3 1761 01876229 4

UNIVERSITY OF ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE
LIBRARY

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

http://www.archive.org/details/canadassonsgreat01nasmuoft

Photo from Western Newspaper Union

GENERAL SIR ARTHUR CURRIE

Commander of the Canadian forces on the Western Front.

CANADA'S SONS IN THE WORLD WAR

A complete and authentic history
of the commanding part played by
Canada and the British Empire in the
World's Greatest War

By COL. GEORGE G. NASMITH, C.M.G.
CANADIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE
Author of "On the Fringe of the Great Fight"

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
GEN. SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE, K.C.B., K.C.M.G.
COMMANDER OF THE CANADIAN ARMY CORPS

IN TWO VOLUMES

ILLUSTRATED WITH REPRODUCTIONS FROM
THE OFFICIAL PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE
CANADIAN AND BRITISH GOVERNMENTS

UNIVERSITY OF ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE
LIBRARY

TORONTO
THE JOHN C. WINSTON CO., LIMITED
MCMXIX

Copyright, Canada, 1919, By
THE JOHN C. WINSTON CO., Limited

Copyright in the U. S. A., 1919
By The John C. Winston Co.

INTRODUCTION

BY GENERAL SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE

COMMANDER OF THE CANADIAN CORPS

To write a foreword for a book all the chapters of which one has not had an opportunity of reading seems a departure from one of the principles which has guided one's conduct since leaving Canada in September, 1914. But when asked to do so by the author I gladly acceded to his request, for I know him to be a true Canadian and one who has played a gallant part in the recent struggle.

To me, it seems a good thing that soldiers like Colonel George Nasmith, C.M.G., should record what they themselves have seen on the battlefields of France and Flanders. Because it is almost impossible to recover the spirit of past years, official histories, though correct in fact, often lack the personal touch of the eye-witness. I therefore welcome this work, and confidently recommend it to the Canadian public.

As Commander of the Canadian Corps the temptation is strong to take this opportunity to recount some of its doings, and to give an appreciation of the value of those achievements. But this is not the time nor the place to follow that inclination, rather let me attempt an appreciation of the man who made for the Canadian Corps whatever reputation it enjoys, the man whom the Germans liked the least and feared the most—the Canadian soldier.

The gathering together as a fighting force of so many men from Canada, and the comparison of these men with other soldiers on the battlefields of Europe have impressed upon us the realization that a Canadian type of manhood has been evolved, by virtue of the admixture of races, the influence of environment, and the manner of life in our home-land.

Canadians derive their parentage chiefly from the Scotch, the Irish, the English, and the French, and while they have inherited traits from every one of these races, yet they are quite distinct from them all.

All Canadians are pioneers themselves, or are the immediate descendants of pioneers. Most of them have gained for themselves, or have inherited those indelible signs with which nature graces the bodies and souls of those who have pitted their will, their strength, and their determination against her elemental forces and have earned for themselves a portion of her riches. The life of a Canadian pioneer, be it that of a woodsman, a prospector, a hunter or a settler upon the land, calls forth and demands brains, mettle and brawn. If the rewards are, as a rule, generous, the difficulties to be overcome are many, and none but the brave, the patient, and the strong can survive them. The severities of our climate eliminate the unfit, while the incessant activities of the community either reject or correct the lazy. Thus we see in operation through various agencies, and in their moral and physical aspects, the laws of selection. The operation of those natural laws have already resulted in the creation or the segregation of a race of men approximating a particular type, with distinct moral, physical and intellectual characteristics.

The rugged strength of the Canadian is depicted in his broad shoulders, deep chest and strong, clean-cut limbs. His eyes are keen and steady, while behind the calm gravity of his mien lies a tenacious and indomitable will. These are the invaluable gifts of our deep forests and lofty mountains, of our rolling plains and our great waterways, and of the clear light of our Northern skies, gifts which have enabled the Canadian to adapt himself readily and well to the new conditions he found confronting him as a soldier. In the vigour of their bodies and the strength of their character we find the secret of their endurance to the dreadful sufferings and hardships of the earliest days of warfare, when the trenches were most primitive, and the comforts almost nil. I recall that the First Canadian division was in the line continuously for fifteen months from May, 1915, to August, 1916. And a greater demand still was made on these qualities of endurance in the last hundred days of the war when, fighting bitterly every day for every foot of ground against almost fifty German divisions, they penetrated the German defensive organizations to a depth exceeding in the aggregate one hundred and fifty-five thousand yards, captured nearly thirty-two thousand prisoners, more than six hundred and twenty pieces of artillery and thousands of machine guns.

Wide awake, and full of intelligent initiative, we see them engaging early in daring night patrols, models of hunting craft. To them there was no No Man's Land. What is usually called such was ours, and regarded merely as an outpost of our fixed position. Later they initiated the daring cutting-out raids, which were soon to become a feature of trench warfare.

Their thirst for accurate information, for maps, for models, for aeroplane photos and sketches of their front was most striking, and what good use they made of this information! In the preparation of trench-to-trench attacks it was an interesting as well as an inspiring sight to see junior officers, N. C. O.'s and men gathered together about the models and maps of the area to be attacked, studying these and discussing the details of the operation, and often as a result of these discussions suggesting modifications of the original plan, which I on many occasions was only too pleased to accept. All these officers and men were soon to go over the top. Some of them would be killed, many wounded, but they were not giving a thought to this aspect of the situation. They were engrossed in their task, enamoured with the technique of their art, their minds were concentrated on the operation, and in the working out of the details which were to secure them such striking success.

Death had for them no peril. Our men could give lessons of stoicism to Roman soldiers. A little incident well illustrates their attitude in this respect. It was during the battle of the Somme in August, 1916. Many of the readers of this volume will recall the headquarters dug-out in the cemetery near Pozières. In front of the entrance to this dug-out a runner had been killed early in the morning. He had been buried up to the waist by the shell, the upper part of his body stood up and the head was leaning forward. Runners were constantly arriving from the front line with information. On entering headquarters they had to pass this body, that of their chum they all knew, and whom anybody could see they liked. Each took a good look at him and with the remark: "Hello, poor Jim! Bad luck!" passed on. The shelling was heavy and the machine-gun fire most violent. The same fate might soon overtake any of these runners, for death faced them all, yet that fact left them undisturbed. What mattered at the moment was their job, nothing else; and I pray you, gentle reader, do not believe that these men were callous. There was more tenderness in their hearts than words can tell. One cannot forget that at any time any man would gladly, freely and voluntarily risk his life to bring in a wounded comrade. Our records are full of such deeds, and if Victoria Crosses were given in this war for the saving of human life at the risk of one's own, Canadian soldiers could boast ten times the sixty-four they now so proudly wear.

Selfishness was unknown to our soldiers, even when suffering bitterly. Once, during the heavy fighting in June, 1916, at Mount Sorrel, a man had his back cut up by machine-gun bullets, another had passed through his shoulder, while still another was lodged in his knee. He considered himself a walking case, and unaided, started limping back under heavy shell-fire to the dressing station two miles in the rear. He had been walking for over two hours, and still had half a mile to go, when he was overtaken by an officer who bade him remain where he was while a stretcher would be sent for him. He declined the offer, and, though bleeding profusely and suffering agony at every step, he suggested that the stretcher be used instead to carry another wounded man who had collapsed some few hundred yards farther up the trench. For himself, he would continue to walk, and hoped to have sufficient strength to reach his destination. Can you imagine what this meant, and what a heart of pure gold that man had? But even better examples of unselfishness and self-sacrifice have come to my notice. I remember the case of a corporal in charge of a patrol of six men operating near Farbus Wood during the battle of Vimy Ridge in April, 1917. They were pinned to the ground by machine-gun fire. To move meant almost certain death, yet it was necessary that the information they had secured should be reported as soon as possible to battalion headquarters. The corporal sacrificed himself in cold blood in order to do his duty, and to save his comrades. He said to them: "I am going to move away in that direction. When they see me and start sprinkling, you beat it."

The men got away; the message reached headquarters; but the corporal lies buried near an old gun emplacement on the eastern slope of Vimy Ridge.

The results achieved by our men are sufficient testimony to their great bravery, yet Canadians would be the last to claim that they possessed this quality in a greater degree than other troops. Thank God, the war has proved that the "guts" are still in the British race, otherwise, it might well be that we at this moment would not be dictating the terms of peace. I cannot refrain, though, from telling you of the superhuman deed of Sergeant Hugh Cairns, late of the Forty-sixth battalion, Saskatchewan regiment. He was recommended for and awarded the Victoria Cross for most conspicuous bravery before Valenciennes on November 1, 1918. When a machine gun opened fire on his platoon, without a moment's hesitation, Sergeant Cairns seized a Lewis gun, and single-handed, in the face of direct fire, rushed the post, killed the crew of five and captured the gun. A little later the line was again held up by machine-gun fire. Sergeant Cairns again rushed forward and alone killed twelve of the enemy, captured eighteen prisoners and two machine guns. Here he was wounded in the shoulder.

Subsequently, when the advance was again held up, by the fire of machine guns and field guns, he led a small party to outflank them, killed many and forced about fifty to surrender. Here were captured a number of machine guns and five field guns. After consolidation he ascertained that a battle patrol was pushing out to exploit Marly. It came on a yard filled with Germans. The officer in charge of the patrol, Sergeant Cairns, with his Lewis gun, and two others broke open the door and entered the yard, Sergeant Cairns firing his machine gun from the hip. About sixty Germans threw up their hands. Their officer passed in front of them, and when close to Cairns shot the latter through the body with his revolver. He sank to his knees but again opened fire with his machine gun. The fighting became general, the enemy picking up their arms and opening fire. Sergeant Cairns was shot through the wrist, but he continued firing inflicting heavy casualties. A moment later the butt of his gun was smashed by enemy bullets and he collapsed from weakness and loss of blood. The officer and one of the other men held the enemy at bay, while the other comrades dragged Sergeant Cairns from the yard. Others of the patrol came up, and, placing him on a door attempted to get him away. The enemy opened fire on this stretcher party, killing one man and again wounding Cairns. By this time more of the patrol had joined in the fighting, and what was left of the sixty Germans in the yard were forced to surrender. As the record says, "throughout the operation he showed the highest degree of valour, and his leadership greatly contributed to the success of the attack. He died on November 2d from wounds."

Let me give one more example. The conduct of Captain Learmouth of the Second battalion was first brought to my notice at the battle of Fresnoy on the morning of May 3d. Our men had to form up in the very exposed ground between Arleux and Fresnoy. The shelling was extremely heavy and only those who have waited for the zero hour in a heavily shelled area know the tension that existed. In order to set an example to his men, Learmouth knelt and prayed to the God of Battles in whom men have more than ever learned to put their trust. Learmouth took part with his battalion again in the fighting at Hill 70. In one of the innumerable counter-attacks delivered by the enemy, our men faced for the first time liquid fire. Men began to retire. Jumping on the parapet, Learmouth shouted, "Second Battalion, we hold this trench for Canada. Not a man must leave." With his revolver he shot down the leading attackers. Standing on the parapet he hurled bombs at the enemy and drove them back, himself catching and returning bombs that were thrown at him. He was badly wounded and fell back into the trench. His men wanted to carry him out, but he refused to leave. His men assured him that the trench would be held as long as one of them was alive, for the Second battalion in all the years of the war has never lost an inch of ground nor failed to take an objective. Learmouth fainted, and his comrades carried him out. He revived and recognized that he was near battalion headquarters. He insisted on seeing the battalion commander, reported the situation, what had occurred, and advised as to steps that might be taken to make the position more secure. He again fainted and never recovered consciousness.

In these few paragraphs I have endeavoured to point out some of the salient characteristics of the Canadian soldier. Vigorous, clean-minded, good-humoured, unselfish, intelligent and thorough; not leaving anything to chance; fully imbued with a sense of their responsibility and the determination to win. The qualities distinctive of the race enabled him to become rapidly one of the best soldiers in the field. He is going back now to civil life still possessing these qualities, while having learned in addition the value of well-organized, collective effort, backed by discipline and self-restraint. The change from the indescribable sufferings endured on the battlefields to the normal conditions of life is so great that the mental readjustment necessary may require a little time and make a call on the sympathetic care of the nation, but I have every confidence that the period of transition will be short. Just as readily as the Canadian citizens became well-disciplined, hard-fighting soldiers, just as readily will the Canadian soldiers resume their former status of useful citizens, and their mutual tolerance, broad understanding, and wide outlook on things social and political will be a distinct asset to the Canadian future national life.

Finally, the Canadian soldier is leaving the mother land and going home filled with a deeper appreciation of the might, the majesty, and the power of our empire, more than ever convinced that Britain never unfurls her colours except in the cause of justice and right. Our empire has suffered much, but nobly responding to every call and to every duty, has won through in the good old-fashioned British way.

Besides the material benefits that will accrue on the completion of peace, she has benefited greatly; she has learned to know herself, to know the true value of that sentiment which binds us so closely to the throne. Let us guard well the integrity of the British empire. The Canadians who have been spared in the providence of God are going home to their loved ones better equipped than ever to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. They are going back to Canada, to that wonderful land of promise and of hope, the cherished land of freedom and a new chance, and as they have cheerfully borne untold hardships and suffering on the field of battle, and forgotten self for their comrades and their empire, I feel that when they return home they will take up their lives where they left off with a broader outlook, a more kindly humanity, and a truer conception of the things really worth while than ever before.

> "Oh Canada, our heritage, our love,
> Thy worth we praise, all other lands above.
> From sea to sea, throughout thy length
> From pole to border land,
> At Britain's side whate'er betide
> Unflinchingly we stand.
> With hearts we sing, God save the King,
> God bless our Empire wide, do we implore,
> And prosper Canada from shore to shore."

London, May 27, 1919.

CONTENTS.

VOLUME I

PAGE

INTRODUCTION BY GENERAL SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE . . . iii

CHA

I. THE GREAT WORLD WAR

The Breaking Down of the German War Machine—The Warring Nations—Germany's Preparedness—The Great Initial Advantage of a "Nation in Arms"—The Work of the British Grand Fleet—Food and Ships—German Ruthlessness and the Tragedy of War—The Cost of War—The Psychology of Victory—Why Germany Failed 21

II. GERMANY'S JEALOUSY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Underlying Causes of the War—Grandiose Scheme of World Conquest—Social and Industrial Conditions in Germany—Prussian Domination—Germany's Plan to Succeed England on the Seas—The Gospel of Hate, Unreciprocated by Great Britain—Germany Makes Her Opportunity—Declarations of War 32

III. KITCHENER'S ARMY

The Scrap of Paper that Brought Britain into the War—Swift Stroke of the Germans Through Belgium—Kitchener Prophesies a Long War—The Making of a Great Army—The German War Machine and the British Navy Begin Operations 47

IV. THE EMPIRE SPRINGS TO ARMS

England's "Contemptibles" Arrive in France—Conditions in Great Britain—The British Colonies Rally to the Support of the Empire—Canada the First to Respond—Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and India Offer Men and Money—The Effect of the Colonies' Offer Upon the Empire . . . 61

V. CANADA IN WAR TIME

Conditions in the Dominion at the Outbreak of War—Wave of Patriotism Sweeps the Country—Canada's Preparation for War—Sir Robert Borden Leads a United People—Mobilization in Valcartier 80

VI. THE RETREAT FROM MONS

Seventy-five Thousand British Opposed by Two Hundred Thousand Germans—General French Conducts a Successful Fighting Retreat Against Over-

CHAPTER PAGE

whelming Odds—French Government Removes to Bordeaux—Sudden Appearance of the Sixth French Army Confounds Von Kluck—The Battle of the Marne 92

VII. FIRST CANADIAN CONTINGENT SAILS FOR EUROPE

In Training at Valcartier—Thirty-three Transports Filled with Canadian Soldiers Cross the Ocean—"To Fight for the Honour of the King and the Empire"—The Great Transport Fleet Reaches Plymouth 107

VIII. ACHIEVEMENTS OF RUSSIA AND JAPAN

Invasion of East Prussia—Strategy of the Grand Duke—The Russian Campaign—The War in the Far East—Kiao-Chau, Germany's Splendid Fortress in China, Taken by Japan 120

IX. THE CANADIANS ON SALISBURY PLAIN

Arrival in England—Review by the King—Lord Roberts Addresses the Men—Discomforts of an English Mid-winter—Off to the Front—Battle of the Aisne—The Race for Calais—First Battle of Ypres—Turkey in the War . . 131

X. THE PRINCESS PATRICIA'S IN ACTION

The War of Attrition—Canadians Arrive in France—The P. P. C. L. I.'s Under Fire—The Battle of Neuve Chapelle—Canadian Division Moves Northward to the Ypres Salient—Winter Warfare 150

XI. THE WAR AT SEA

Bombardment of Defenseless English Towns—The Naval Battle of Dogger Bank—Von Spee Destroys British Squadron—Von Spee's Squadron Destroyed by the British—Germany's Ruthless Submarine Warfare 163

XII. THE FIRST YEAR OF WAR

The Fall of Przemysl—The Naval Bombardment of the Dardanelles—Military Methods of the Combatants—The War in South Africa 172

XIII. CANADIANS SAVE THE SITUATION AT YPRES

Personal Impressions of the Road from Poperinghe to Ypres—The Salient Where No Birds Sang—Poison Gas—The Ill-Fated City of Ypres—The Second Battle of Ypres in which the "Canadians Saved the Situation"—The Terrible Nature of Modern Warfare 191

CHAPTER PAGE

XIV. THE BATTLES OF FESTUBERT AND GIVENCHY

Fighting by the Light of Electric Flash Lamps in the Underground Galleries of the Labyrinth—The Bexhill Redoubt—Festubert and Givenchy Arouse England to the Situation—The Munitions Act 213

XV. FIGHTING ON MANY FRONTS

Battle of Champagne—The Wonderful Story of Gallipoli—The War in Mesopotamia—The Russian Front—Italy Enters the War—Bulgaria and the Balkans—The Serbian Retreat 227

XVI. CANADIAN TROOPS PROVE THEIR METAL

Training the Second Canadian Division—"Plug Street"—Trench Raids—Formation of Third Canadian Division—Hooge and Sanctuary Wood—Battle of the Craters—The Glorious Defence of Verdun—Austrian Attack in Trentino 253

XVII. THE BATTLE OF JUTLAND

German High Sea Fleet and British Grand Fleet Contrasted—Beginning of the Greatest Naval Battle in History—Beatty Fights Against Heavy Odds—Jellicoe's Flotillas in Action—The Fight in the Night—German Warships Steam Home—Losses—Death of Lord Kitchener 272

XVIII. CANADIAN CORPS IN THE GREAT SOMME OFFENSIVE

The Fourth Canadian Division in the Trenches—The Somme, a Tremendous Series of Battles—Second Division Takes Courcelette—The Tanks—Fourth Division Captures Regina Trench—The Russian Front—Rumania . . . 293

XIX. GERMAN METHODS OF KULTUR

Atrocities in Belgium and France—Sinking of the *Lusitania*—Zeppelin Raids—Naval Raids—Edith Cavell—Captain Fryatt 310

XX. CANADIAN CORPS CAPTURES VIMY RIDGE

The Most Perfectly Organised and Successful Battle of the War—Details of the Secret Preparation—How the Surprise was Sprung—General Byng Commands Victorious Canadians—Recapture of Kut-el-Amara—The Fall of Bagdad . . 328

PREFACE

The main purpose of writing this book is to give Canadians, in particular, a fair idea of the part that they and the people of the British Empire have played in the great world war recently ended, and to give it its proper relationship to the war as a whole.

The Canadians won the war; so did Britain, France, the United States and the other Allies: no one of them singly, all of them jointly.

The work of each nation was of vital consequence at certain stages of the war, and many times "the war was saved." In that sense the Belgians, by delaying the German army in the first days of the struggle and thereby enabling the French and British armies to mobilize, saved the situation. At the Marne the French, assisted by the British, definitely wrecked the German plan of winning an early victory. The Russians in the east, by their offensive, kept the Allies on the western front from being crushed by sheer weight of numbers. The assistance of Japan in supplying the Russians with munitions and equipment helped that nation to keep its armies in the field when its own supplies were inadequate.

The British at the first Battle of Ypres and the Canadians at the second Battle of Ypres prevented the enemy from winning the Channel ports and bringing about a possibly fatal situation. The Italians broke the Austrian army and put Austria-Hungary out of business. In the last great crisis the Americans undoubtedly turned the tide with their moral and material resources.

And away and above all, the British fleet from the day war was declared made the seas safe, thereby making it possible for land operations to be carried on.

Yet though Canada, like any other country, did not of herself win the war it was generally acknowledged even by the highest British authorities that the Canadian Corps was the most effective fighting machine on the western front. Whenever there was a hard nut to crack the Canadian Corps was almost certain to be called upon to be the hammer. The Canadian Corps took Passchendaele when all other troops had failed to take it. The Canadian

Corps seized the powerful bastion of Vimy Ridge which had cost the lives of thousands of French and British soldiers in futile efforts to capture it. In the great Somme offensive Canadian divisions were given some of the hardest positions to win, and Regina trench, Moquet farm, Zollern redoubt, Hessian trench and Courcelette stand to their credit.

During the great German offensive the Canadian Corps, according to Field Marshal Haig's official report, was kept behind the most vital sector of the British front ready to be thrown into line if a break should occur. During that period the Canadian Corps was humorously called "The Salvation Army."

In the first great offensive of the Allies in July, 1918, the Canadian Corps, in company with the Australian Corps, tore through the German lines in front of Amiens to a depth of 14,000 yards,—the greatest advance ever made in a single day during the war. The Canadian Corps was selected to break the Drocourt-Quéant switch line, considered by the Germans to be impregnable, and in an hour the Canadian boys had swept through that tangled jungle of wire and trenches. The Canadians were given the formidable Hindenburg line to smash and they did it, bursting through it at Cambrai in perhaps the hardest fought battle of the war.

Such was the record which resulted in the Canadian Corps being called "the spear-head of the British army."

With the exception of two sacrifice guns placed in the front trenches at Mt. Sorrel, the Canadians never lost a gun. They never permanently lost a position. During the last two years they were never driven out of a captured position once consolidated and consequently never went backward. These are facts.

The glorious deeds of Canadians in the war need no fulsome praise—"Good wine needs no bush." The plain narrative is sufficient to make one estimate them at their true value, and they should be known and appreciated by every Canadian. With that object in view it has been my pleasant endeavor, during many months of what would have otherwise been a long and tedious convalescence, to set down, in as simple and direct form as possible, the plain story of the deeds of Canada's sons and the British Empire.

Canadian Official Photograph *Copyright reserved*

H. R. H. THE PRINCE OF WALES

Inspecting a Canadian Machine Gun Battalion on the Valenciennes front. The Prince is seen talking to a company sergeant-major.

VOLUME I

CHAPTER I

The Great World War

On November 11, 1918, Germany, on the verge of a crushing defeat, threw up her hands and agreed to an armistice, the terms of which were the most humiliating ever imposed upon a first-class nation. In another ten days Marshal Foch, commander-in-chief of the allied forces, would have been in the position which the Germans had struggled for during four long years—the position of being able to destroy the enemy army. This alone, perhaps, could have taught the battle-loving Prussian the real meaning of war. Everywhere from July, 1918, onward, the allied armies had been successful. In turn the French, the British, the Belgians, the Italians, the Serbs and the Americans had smashed through the German and Austrian lines and beaten down the resistance of German troops, protected by the most elaborate fortifications and ingenious devices that science could devise.

From March till July with her armies re-enforced by tremendous numbers of men and guns, transferred from the disintegrated Russian front, Germany, on the Western front, had driven great wedges into the allied lines. She failed to break through. When it dawned upon the German people that their supreme military effort had failed, German morale also failed.

It was the last great effort of that arrogant people, who had already seen glimpses of the writing in the heavens; who realized that defeated Russia could not be organized as a source of raw material and food, and who saw millions of fresh and eager American troops pouring across the Atlantic to the aid of the Allies. The Germany allies were weakening daily and required that increased support which became more and more difficult to supply. Germany fully realized that this was to be her last opportunity of obtaining a military decision. She struck and failed, and at the moment she failed the initiative passed from her hands into those of the Allies. Under the leadership of the great French strategist, Foch, our armies struck and struck again until, reeling under the force of repeated blows, Germany's army fell back broken all along the line, and to save itself from utter destruction retired sullenly towards its own border.

DEFYING THE WORLD

When Germany defied the world she summoned to her aid the three autocracies, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. Against these four autocracies twenty-four nations gradually arrayed themselves. At the beginning five nations only, France, Great Britain, Belgium, Russia and Serbia, were united against the German policy. Then as the full meaning of the struggle dawned upon the world, nineteen other nations, one by one, threw in their lot with the Allies so that there were finally twenty-eight nations, representing one and a half billions of people, directly engaged in the gigantic struggle.

Fighting for the Allies were men of every colour, black, white, red and brown. Every religion under the sun was represented, from the ancient Confucianism of the Chinese to the latest development of New Thought. Chinese coolies, Sikhs and Gurkhas from India, Senegalese from Africa, Maories from New Zealand, North American Indians and representatives of almost every climate under the sun rubbed shoulders in Northern France with British guardsmen, Alpine Chasseurs, Highlanders, Australians, Canadians, Portuguese and Americans. Never before in the world's history had so many races come together to fight in a common cause. Never before had a war resolved itself into so many separate campaigns. In China, in Southeast Africa, in Mesopotamia, in Palestine, in Macedonia, in Egypt, in Gallipoli, in Serbia, in Rumania, in Italy, in Russia, in Poland, in East Prussia, in Galicia, in Belgium and in France the war was waged.

Never before had it been possible to carry on war in the air or under the sea. New types of warfare had seriously modified the older methods and both reduced and amplified the reach and striking power of the belligerent nations.

Germany, with her magnificent machine-like army and her civilian population organized on the basis of a "nation in arms" ready to co-operate to the full with the army in event of war; with her tremendous stores of equipment and vast quantities of guns and munitions made at first an admirable showing and for four years won a series of victories. Yet on looking back we see that her very failures to break the allied lines, such as occurred at the Marne and during the first battle of Ypres, were equivalent to great German defeats. For four years she won much territory and yet she was unable to destroy any of the armies of the first-class powers except that of Russia, which melted away through German propaganda and treachery and not from defeat in the field.

THE ODDS WITH GERMANY

All the odds were with Germany; her plan to destroy France, then settle with Russia and finally deal with Great Britain at her leisure was sound in theory but just failed of accomplishment. The unexpected delay caused by the Belgian resistance, the dogged fighting of the British in their retreat from Mons, the lightning strategy of the French at the battle of the Marne and their wonderful recuperative powers were just sufficient, at vital moments, to snatch victory from the Germans when it was almost within their grasp. Above all, the British Grand Fleet steaming silently through the mists of the North Sea, or waiting patiently in our northern harbours, steadily wove the web that was, slowly but surely, to strangle the Central Powers. With the German fleet bottled up, with her merchant ships rotting in German harbours, with the wharves of her great ports overgrown with grass and streets silent, with her exports shut in and her imports shut out, with increasing lack of food, metals, rubber and other necessities, Germany slowly but surely languished.

The last great attempt to achieve a military victory in 1918 was an attempt to break the web which the navy had so steadily woven and which was now choking the very life out of her. With that despairing effort and the refusal of the German navy to meet the British fleet the end was inevitable and possibly would have occurred within a few months without a military decision.

At the opening of the war the superiority of Germany and

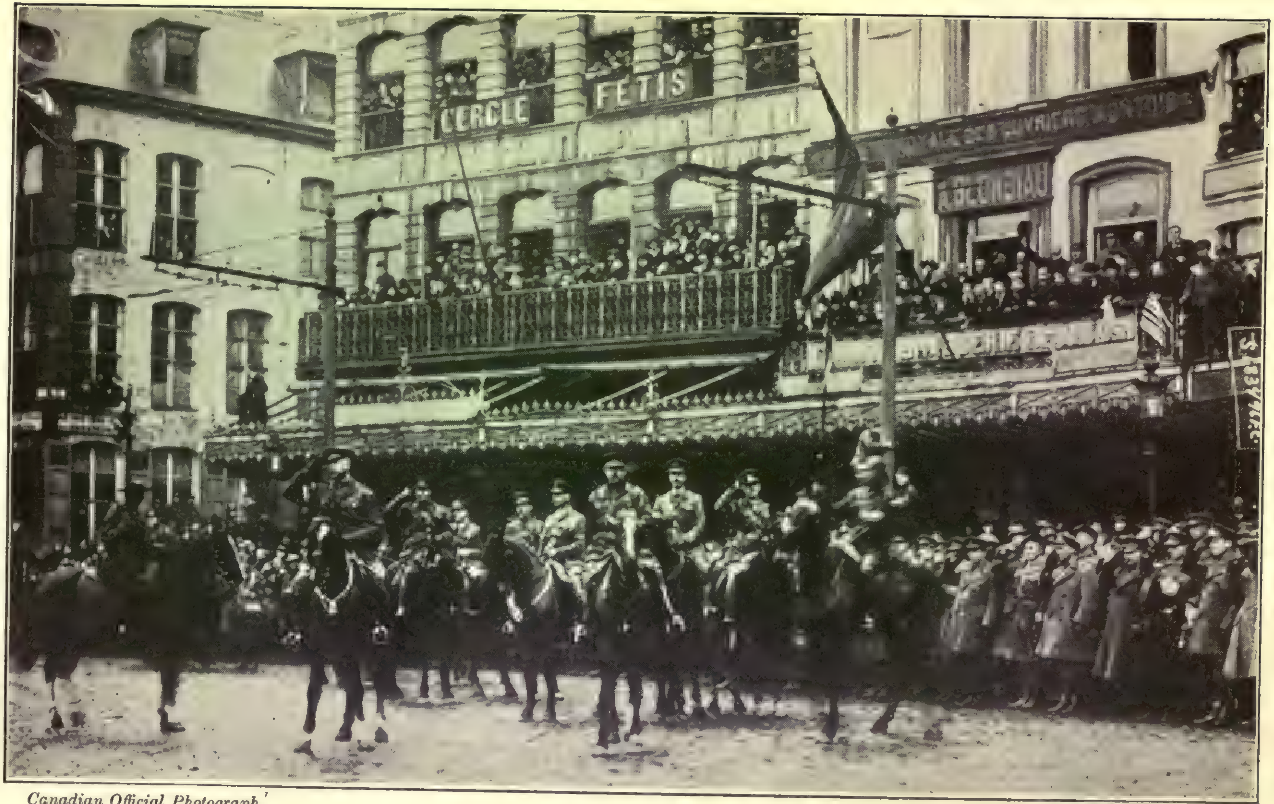
Austria in numbers of effectives and material was overwhelming. A year after war had begun she was manufacturing one hundred times as many high explosives as England. From the moment war was decided upon, the Civil Government of Germany virtually ceased to exist; the country was under martial law; every man, woman, child, mine, factory, railroad or store was at the practical disposition of the military authorities. There was no need for the Government to consider the opinions of the people as was the case in democracies. Germany had no further worries about a great many things. Her mercantile marine for example had gone out of business, the result of the "inactivity" of the British Grand Fleet. The German navy was in the same condition.

The Fatherland was relieved of all responsibilities regarding her colonies and the attendant problems of supplying them with troops and munitions. Her foreign commerce was off her hands. She had not allowed any previous engagements, understandings, conventions or moral scruples to interfere at any time with her freedom of action.

Perhaps most important of all, Germany was seated in the centre of the sphere of action with her appliances of war all about her and a network of strategic railways reaching out in all directions to her enemies' borders. She was able with an incalculable saving, as compared with her opponents, of time, labour, risk and expense to concentrate troops at this point, withdraw them from that, and send with despatch artillery, ammunition, troops and supplies as conditions demanded them from any one section of front to any other. The Allies working around the circumference of that circle, in countries devoid of strategic railway systems, were at a tremendous disadvantage from the very beginning. Only the skill and inventions of the Allies were able to overcome these initial handicaps at a tremendous cost of labour, material, men and money.

BEHIND THE LINES

The war was not decided upon the battlefield alone. Every patriotic civilian in the allied countries of Europe as well as America who endeavoured to produce more food and do without unnecessary luxuries helped to win the war. During one phase it was the food which we grew and the food which we saved in America



Canadian Official Photograph. *Copyright Reserved.*

ONE OF THE PROUDEST MOMENTS IN THE WAR FOR CANADA'S HEROIC TROOPS

General Sir Arthur Currie, Commander of the Canadian Corps, taking the salute of the troops at the solemn parade held in the main square of Mons on November 11, 1918, at the hour when, by the terms of the armistice, the "Cease Fire" put an end to hostilities on all fronts. On his left is the general commanding the division of Canadians that recaptured the town.

which carried the allied people through a period of threatened starvation.

The German submarines came very close to their objective of starving Great Britain, France and Italy by sinking food-laden ships from America. The U-boats were conquered by a margin that was very narrow.

THE COST OF WAR

The heaviest cost in proportion to population and losses sustained in national wealth through devastation by war was undoubtedly borne by the nations that were first invaded and bore the heaviest shock and destruction of battle. These were Poland, Serbia, France and Belgium. The losses of Poland are unknown, but must have been enormous, for that ancient battle-ground was harried and laid waste during successive German retreats. France, with a population of 40,000,000, suffered 4,500,000 casualties and lost 1,400,000 in killed. It was estimated that 250,000 houses in France were destroyed and that destruction of property amounted to $13,000,000,000. Belgium, with a population of 8,000,000, had a casualty list of 100,000, with 30,000 killed. Her monetary losses due to German military occupation amounted to $1,400,000,000. Russia had a casualty list of 9,150,000, with a loss of 1,700,000 in killed and 2,500,000 prisoners. The British Isles, with a population of 60,000,000 including the population of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland, had a casualty list of 3,089,757, of which almost 1,000,000 were killed and missing. Of the British colonies Canada, with a population of 8,000,000, sustained 254,000 casualties, of which 54,000 were killed or missing. These are included in the total of British losses. The United States, with a population of 100,000,000, sustained 236,117 casualties, of which 50,000 were killed or missing. Germany sustained 6,066,769 casualties. Austria had some 5,000,000 casualties.

The cost of the war to Great Britain was $52,000,000,000; the total allied claims for indemnities amounted to $120,000,000,000.

THE SILENCE OF THE BATTLEFIELD

But no account of cost either in deaths, wounds or gold can convey any adequate idea of what war is or what German brutality has accomplished. The battlefield, even when the living have gone, is in itself terrible and terrifying. Even its silence can convey to the spectator some real idea of the horror of war.

From Ypres to Noyon, a distance of one hundred miles, there exists the most appalling desert, fifteen to fifty miles in width. In a land where before the war nearly 3,000,000 Belgian and French people lived there is nothing: villages, forests, shade and fruit trees, shrubs, hedges and buildings are all gone. Of a town or village there remain a few mounds of broken masonry and formless heaps of brick and dèbris sometimes blackened with charred ashes.

Standing upon any slight elevation you will see a land so torn with shell fire that it resembles a skeleton. Endless rows of rusty barbed wire, great shell holes, crumbling dug-outs and thousands of crosses which themselves are beginning to tumble over, cover the landscape as far as the eye can see. It is a monstrous waste without a survivor, without a single habitation, without a tree. Where there had been fertile fields, happy people and smiling villages nothing remains but desolation, tragic beyond expression.

In the shell-torn flats of the Ypres salient alone nearly half a million men lie,—men who had blocked the road to Calais. Between Ypres and the Somme in the land which holds no living thing one and a half million dead lie sleeping. This desert was not caused by battle, it was the deliberate cold-blooded purpose of Hindenburg and the German army to create that desert. With the thoroughness with which Hindenburg laid waste Poland in his retreat before the Grand Duke the thing was done in France. Villages were destroyed, everything living was cut down and every inanimate thing blown up, while the civilian population was driven away to die or be sustained by the bread of neutrals. Thus did the Germans deliberately create a desert in France, a desert sown with unexploded shells and the dèbris of battles, and planted with innumerable unexploded mines and booby traps.

The Lens coal mining region, which annually produced 15,000,000 tons of coal, the greater part of the French supply, is an area of razed houses and splintered beams. Machinery which could not be moved was smashed and the mines flooded. Every house was dynamited, and utter ruin prevails in that region which is a key to the industry of France.

Looms, of which there were hundreds of thousands in the little villages and hamlets of the invaded regions of France and Belgium, were carried away or deliberately destroyed, so that when the war was over the French and Belgian people would be unable to work and Germany would obtain a great lead in the industrial war to come. Such were the results of war in a country invaded by Germany. Such were the results produced by the deliberate destruction of a brutalized people whose degraded minds had adopted the belief that force alone must win.

The war cost the world altogether some 33,000,000 casualties, of which approximately 7,500,000 are dead.

For four years the Germans had successfully withstood the whole civilized world arraigned against them. In spite of inferiority in numbers and resources they were able to add victory after victory to their astonishing record. At the beginning they were superior to the Allies in the number of men and their perfect organization. After the first year, realizing that they had reached their climax in numbers and must steadily decrease while the allied forces must increase, they concentrated upon their resources of science and industry. They produced a tremendous preponderance of artillery, machine guns and shells designed to keep the man-power of the Allies at bay and destroy it while they conserved their own decreasing man-power. They had implicit faith in their superiority and in the belief of their invincibility. In arms and leadership their morale was sustained.

LEADERSHIP PASSES TO ALLIES

In July, 1918, Foch was able to demonstrate to the German masses that the superiority of leadership had passed definitely and permanently to allied arms. They knew that the advantage which they had enjoyed for four years had been snatched from them and their cause had become hopeless. That was the beginning of the end and the decline was swift.

The complete breakdown of the morale of Germany is a dramatic episode in the history of modern times and bordered on the sensational. Only four months before the end the allied cause was in the greatest danger and it required all the fortitude and faith of the allied peoples to carry on. The critics predicted that by midsummer of 1919 with the coming of 4,000,000 Americans the tide would turn and the war would end within at least two years. The mathematical exactitude of the critics in the estimation of bayonets, guns and available reserves was impressive.

BY FAITH THE WAR WAS WON

The psychic element as a decisive factor did not make any appeal to them, for it was not believed that psychic element could stand against machine guns. Nevertheless the complete breakdown of the German home front before the military front was decisively crushed was the final factor. The German home front broke down because it was inferior psychically to the allied home front.

It was faith that won the great war for the Allies. As soon as the Germans believed that they were not going to win the war they went to pieces, and the Allies, who all along believed that victory must eventually be theirs, went over them like a steam-roller. The best critics believed that from a purely military standpoint the Allies were due to win the war in late 1919 or early 1920. The break in the German morale and the strengthening of our own through America coming into the arena shortened the war by at least one year. It was a fine demonstration of the fact that he who takes into account only material forces will never reach correct results.

The allied morale and the German morale are spoken of as though similar, yet they are so unlike that the difference between them has gone far to win the war.

There are two elements that constitute morale, the belief that one's cause is just and that right cannot be defeated, and the knowledge that one has superiority of arms and cannot be defeated. The dominating factor in allied morale was faith in the righteousness of their cause; the belief in their military superiority being secondary.

In German morale the dominating factor was belief in their military superiority; faith in the justice of their cause was a secondary consideration. In either case the crushing of the dominating element in the national morale would rapidly result in a crumbling of resistance. If the Allies were brought to believe that they were wrong morally they could not go on fighting, no matter how much they believed in their military superiority. If the Germans were convinced that they could not win the war they could not go on, no matter how much they believed in the justice of their cause.

In defeat the allied morale was stubborn and inflexible because no amount of force could destroy faith in the justice of their cause. German morale gave way because it required but a slight preponderance of force to destroy faith in their military superiority. That is precisely what happened to German morale in July, 1918.

THE PASSING OF GERMAN KULTUR

The question is often asked, "Was it worth while; was not the cost too great?" There can be no second answer to that. With the destruction of autocracy and the blight of militarism removed; with the passing of German Kultur and all that the German menace implied; with the spread of new ideas as to liberty throughout the earth, and with the increased opportunities that will be afforded to the people at large to become better educated, and obtain their just share of material comfort and happiness, the world has undoubtedly made a gigantic step forward and entered upon a new era of progress.

Germany had woven a legend as to her invincibility which she almost succeeded in forcing the world to believe. She made her own people during many long years hate and despise France and England. Yet when she precipitated the war she knew that hate, even to a German, had not a strong enough appeal and invented the fable that she had been attacked and was waging the warfare in defence of The Fatherland.

Above all, believing in material more than in spiritual forces she laboriously and with infinite patience builded a war machine that could not fail. And this superb military machine did fail when it was confronted with those other forces, call them spiritual if you will, which the Allies possessed,—belief in the righteousness of their cause; that justice should not perish; that might was not necessarily right; that utter extinction was preferable to existence under the rule of a people whose every principle of national ethics, morality and justice was wrong.

CHAPTER II

Germany's Jealousy of Great Britain

The underlying causes responsible for the World War are even yet not perfectly understood. Years must elapse before these causes can be fully comprehended and the future historian with all the facts, data and memoirs yet to be written views the whole in perspective, and pieces together the scattered bits of evidence. Then only will the true be separated from the false and opinion sifted from fact.

The incident at Sarajevo was only the match which kindled the great conflagration. The material for it had long been in course of preparation. When the time was opportune the murder in the Balkans served as the necessary excuse—the chance spark destined to set the whole world ablaze and snuff out the lives of 7,500,000 men.

The evidence at hand, nevertheless, is overwhelming in establishing the fact that Germany for at least thirty years had been deliberately preparing for war and was, at the end, directly responsible for it. Bismarck had by a series of master-strokes consolidated the numerous German principalities into the German Empire under the domination of Prussia. He had, by his final victorious campaign against France in 1870, proved to the satisfaction of the German people that war pays. This belief created by Bismarck, and carefully nurtured by the Prussian military caste, was bound sooner or later to prove itself.

The huge indemnity exacted from France in 1870 had been used to foster German industry and the German nation gradually emerged from a condition of poverty. Her people were both industrious and frugal and the national wealth of Germany in consequence grew rapidly. Gradually also she built up a gigantic merchant marine to carry her export goods to the four quarters of the globe. As her wealth grew she increased her military strength until it became the most powerful in Europe. Her universities also became famous for scientific research, and attracted thousands of students from civilized countries all over the world. Though Wagner and Kant were the last of their kind and no successors had arisen from a great mass of mediocrities to take their places, their traditions persisted, and no musician or philosopher in America thought his studies complete until he had spent at least one year in The Fatherland. The word "German" became a sort of fetish when applied to anything save cheap manufactured goods, for the German Government had learned the art of advertising and assiduously published the superior qualities of the German mind and German goods the world over.

German professors worked for ridiculously small pay; their work was more to them than money and it was honoured. A Herr Professor in a German university took second place only to a lieutenant in the Imperial army or navy. They were excellent plodding academicians, capable of painstaking, laborious work which sometimes resulted in a discovery such as that of Ehrlich, when, after six hundred and six chemical experiments, he lit upon a cure for a hitherto incurable disease—a cure which was immediately patented and resulted in another great German industry. It was noteworthy that no German scientist gave his discoveries to the world to alleviate human suffering as had the immortal Pasteur of France. German scientific discoveries were always patented and capitalized.

When the German Empire was born in the time of Bismarck most of the mental products that Germany had been famed for disappeared. Goethe, Schiller, Beethoven and many of the great masters of music, literature, philosophy and history had been the subjects of the smaller principalities which went to make up the new German Empire. After 1870, in art, literature and in the realms of pure thought, Germany steadily declined. She became content with mediocrities; she had turned her face towards material things and materialism invaded every phase of German life and character.

Bismarck in 1862 said: "The great questions are to be settled, not by speeches and 'majority resolutions,' but by blood and iron." In that speech Bismarck tried to establish the principle that force was more powerful than ideas, a lie that countless ages has disproved. The phrase "Might makes right" became the watchword of official modern Germany.

Nietzsche, a mystic poet and philosopher of Polish origin, who himself despised the Germans, taught that to be great the superman power is the only thing worth seeking, and that to attain this end all means are justifiable. He despised the morality of Christianity as something suitable for slaves only. The doctrine of Nietzsche that might may be right, combined with the materialistic thought of the teachers of modern German schools, resulted in a frame of mind suitable for the reception of teachings like those of Treitschke, the historian.

Treitschke taught that war was the great cleansing process for a nation, that true religion was the religion of valour, and that the absence of war would convert humanity into races of selfish nonentities. His teachings were not allied to religion and soon the new German school sank into a coarse materialism. The "magnificent blonde beast, avidly rampant for spoil and victory," became the national idea. Commercial success, militarism and a Kaiser who assumed himself to be the chosen instrument of God, and a philosophy divorced from ethics, united to foster in Germany a wonderful national self-satisfaction and an inordinate national ambition, with force as the accepted ideal, and the methods and ideals of the army saturating the whole national life. The army came to be all-powerful in Germany and the Prussian military class became the real governing caste.

The Prussians, a mixture of Slav, Teuton and Finn, are unimaginative people with a wonderful ability for organization. Everything is worked out by them according to plan and in the building up of German commerce, their education system and their army, they, as the dominating race, toiled ceaselessly and produced such marvellous results that success made them drunk.

The governing class of Germany came, in the opinion of the world, to be centred in the great German General Staff, and the methods of the army became the methods of the nation. Both the army and the nation were drilled to work and obey. The nation thought as the autocratic powers dictated it should think. The press, the pulpit, the educational system, and even the universities all became agents in the great task of making the varied constituent nations of the empire think as one. These teachings all inculcated the belief that the German people was the super-

KING GEORGE V

King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India, who struggled earnestly to prevent the war, but when Germany attacked Belgium sent the mighty forces of the British Empire to stop the Hun.

race, that sooner or later this super-nation would be compelled to assert itself and make a bid for world domination.

As a great industrial power Germany had come to realize her need for colonies to produce supplies and raw material for her manufactures, and, looking about, she saw that most of the countries worth while had already been pre-empted. Few lands remained that other nations had not already taken; wherever she turned she found Britain and France before her, and she began to realize that the only way to the position she coveted would be over the prostrate bodies of one or other of these nations. Emperor Wilhelm became more and more obsessed with the ambition to transform the German Empire from a continental to a world power and, with that objective ever before him, steadily pursued the policy which he expected would finally give Germany world domination.

The acquisition and retention of colonies by any power nowadays demands a navy, and in the year 1900 the first navy bill of Germany was brought forward. Taking advantage of successive waves of anglophobia, Germany voted great sums of money, and by 1914 had succeeded in building up a navy second only to that of Great Britain among the navies of the world. In the same year she increased her peace strength to 870,000 which placed her easily above any other military nation in the world.

But as her own strength grew Germany saw her opportunities of obtaining a place in the sun by peaceful means steadily decreasing. The world looked askance at her steady development in military and sea power, and as a consequence the Triple Entente in Europe became an alliance.

The *Contemporary Review* of April, 1892, contained an article entitled "Wilhelm" which created some stir at that time. It was supposed to have been written by one of Bismarck's camp and is briefly summarized as follows:

Long before he had come to the throne the character of Prince Wilhelm had excited exceptional curiosity and an amount of sympathy for his well-known defect, a withered arm. Great things were prophesied for him by some. On the other hand he had not long left the University of Bonn when it was whispered that he was a man of little heart, of inordinate vanity and capable of great want of consideration for others, though all these qualities were dwarfed by an ever-present restlessness. Wilhelm, to learn statecraft, was placed for a time under a high administrative official who called him a "modern being," meaning a superficial individual who loved noisy notoriety. The fear spread in Germany that the ultimate consequences of the Emperor's departure from Bismarck's foreign policy would prove disastrous. Little public expression of this was heard because the press of Germany does not fill the same position as that of England in giving the full voice to public opinion, and patriotism instinctively silences many who fear to discuss what they feel they are powerless to change. The Emperor's intellectual stock-in-trade was said to consist mainly of the gift of quickly grasping the outward aspect of many things. Thus he pretended a species of plausible affectation for literature, but reading had been to him for years a physical impossibility, for all of his time had been filled up with hunting parties, yachting, torpedo boat trips, railway journeys, festive banquets, christenings, weddings, military manœuvres and similar efforts. His shallow brilliancy and his position produced a glamour which sufficed for the time to dazzle and incite the admiration of many like the enthusiastic reporter who wrote home after being the Emperor's guest at manœuvres "that another Frederick the Great was the least that the world had to expect," forgetting that these showy gifts are ever, except in such rare cases as that of Napoleon, the almost infallible signs of superficiality.

Perhaps the most ominous joint product of the Emperor's vanity and superficiality combined was the megalomania which he seemed to be developing at an alarming rate. This megalomania showed itself in a diseased estimate of the relative proportion of things, and caused the deepest anxiety in Germany, because it was feared that it would lead to some irreparable want of tact and then to war. It was argued that, vanity being at the bottom of it all, the Emperor would thirst for a premature immortality. Unable to gain it by peaceful methods, his restless nervous irritability would degenerate into a recklessness which would blind him to danger and lead to war. The danger of this was apparent when we know that the Prussian military party in Berlin was eager for an early war with Russia and was strongly optimistic as to its probable results. Doubts were expressed with regard to the qualities of heart of the Emperor. It was believed that he was endowed with as much heart as his vanity left room for,—of the emotional surface variety. He possessed an exaggerated boisterous bonhomie which was typical of his superficial, praise-loving, egotistical nature.

Referring to the necessity of controlling egotism, the article said: "It is a fight which not only the German Emperor, but each of us, must wage if he would conquer the spirit of crass self-advertising egotism which more or less pervades our time."

Bismarck said of this article: "Whoever wrote it knew what he was writing about, for what it states is true."

A few years ago Whitman set down his personal experiences of changes which had gradually come over Germany in the previous twenty-five years. He did not believe that any one man, even though the Emperor, was responsible for the stupendous development and change of Germany. The whole country had gone back on the tenets of thought and conduct of its past. One serious German periodical stated that the ideals of Goethe, dominant fifty years ago, were not held by two thousand Germans of the present day.

But Whitman held that, though an autocrat could not originate the hallucination of a whole people, he could act as a centre of infection when there was a predisposition to the disease. The readiness of the German nation to become infected with ill-digested ideas from above he thought due to the parvenu character of latter-day Germany. Through that channel it was possible for the Emperor to exert a pernicious influence upon the German people of which he was a faithful mirror and exponent. His passion for military parades and theatrical situations was symptomatic of this Emperor who reflected the surface flotsam and jetsam of the nation with little thought or knowledge of the deeper impulses of the soul of the nation.

Knowing well the bent of the Emperor's mind, which had long been one of envy and jealousy of England, it had become an unconscious habit with those who wished to retain his favour to minister thereto, and this applied from Marshal Von Bieberstein to Bülow.

In Emperor Wilhelm, Germany possessed a ruler after her own heart. In 1890 he dropped the old pilot Bismarck and became his own adviser. A man of immense energy, he assumed all knowledge to be his province. His adventures in scholarship, art and theology were viewed with amusement outside of Germany, but his highly impressionable mind registered every wave of feeling of his people, and he was believed to put into garish rhetorical speech what his people desired to think. The Kaiser did not direct but, rather, reflected German opinion. He was the product of his people.

It was common knowledge that for many years Germany, intoxicated by her success in war and by her increase of wealth, had regarded the British Empire with eyes of jealousy and hatred. She had no reason for so doing. With all their malevolence Germans could never give an example of a bad turn done them until their deliberate policy had forced the British people into antagonism.

That Germans hated the British with a most bitter hatred, was repeatedly shown in their literature and in their press. Sometimes, as at the time of the Jameson raid, it flared up into outspoken bitterness. In the United Kingdom the feeling was in no way reciprocated. Two events occurred, however, which made the easy-going Briton look more intently and enquiringly at his distant cousin over the water. Those two events were the Boer War and the building of the German fleet. The first showed the ugly disposition which Germany had to do the British people mischief, and the second made them realize that she was forging the weapon with which that mischief was to be accomplished.

It was an open boast that Germany would succeed Great Britain upon the seas. The Kaiser in a message to the Russian Czar pompously said: "The Admiral of the Atlantic greets the Admiral of the Pacific." The British recognized the situation and the Entente Cordiale was the answer to the German fleet. "They had discovered their enemy: it became necessary to find their friends." The "splendid isolation" of the Victorian period was no longer possible, and the Entente became a reality. King Edward, by his personal ability, probably accomplished more than any government in bringing together the coterie of nations that ended the dangerous situation for his empire.

Casting about her and sizing up the situation about the time the Kiel Canal was being completed, it seemed to Germany that her opportunity was almost at hand. Great Britain, engaged in socialistic reform, with a rebellion imminent in Ireland, and labour unrest general throughout the country, appeared to Germany a ramshackle nation whose colonies would fall away on the first signs of war. France seemed in her eyes to be decadent; Russia had not fully recovered from her war with Japan, though she was making wonderful strides in reform and building up a remodelled army system. Germany feared the great Slav Empire of Russia and distrusted the new signs of her awakening to her potentialities.

There were also internal reasons in Germany for going to war. The swashbuckling of the army officer and the fear inspired by him began to pall upon the German civilian. In the town of Zabern in Alsace in 1913 a German lieutenant cut a lame cobbler over the head with his sword because the cobbler had failed to salute. The officer was sentenced, then acquitted, but the popular indignation which occurred in the Reichstag in consequence thereof resounded throughout Germany and was not lost upon the great general staff. The taxes for the army and navy were becoming very onerous and the nation could not be expected to tolerate them indefinitely. Socialism, apparently antipatriotic in character, had grown to tremendous proportions in Germany. The results of German industry and German efficiency were impressive, but German business was constructed on a basis of credit; as long as the machinery kept going everything was all right, but, should there be a sudden halt, such as that occasioned by a general strike, the result might prove disastrous.

In 1914 the Kiel Canal was finished, permitting the German fleet to pass at will from the Baltic into the North Sea. Several years before a British admiral is said to have stated that war would probably occur in the year in which the Kiel Canal was finished.

Taking all things into consideration it seemed to Germany that her hour was about to strike; that "The Day" was nigh at hand. A short and successful war, as in 1870, would bring again into the German war chest huge indemnities that would pay the cost of her great war organization and set the nation permanently on a solid financial basis. She would take from prostrate France the colonies she desired and put an end to the Russian peril for some time to come. Then at her leisure, with her coffers refilled, her navy enlarged and a great triumph behind her she would deal with the rest of the world at her convenience. Germany was crowded for room and had to expand.

It was a grandiose scheme of world conquest and, according to German psychology, impossible of failure. She was thoroughly prepared for war. She would strike down France with the full weight of her army, while Austria held Russia in check. Then, with France prostrate she would turn to Russia and with Austrian and Turkish aid would destroy the Russian giant. With these antagonists removed from the arena she would be in a splendid position to deal with Great Britain and the United States, and eliminate two of the great forces that stood in her way to world domination. It was the British fleet that blocked Germany's progress on every side and the Monroe Doctrine which prevented her schemes of aggrandizement in South America.

Over a long period of years Germany had been accumulating information in every country under the sun upon every conceivable subject, and considered herself to be familiar with the situation in every country. She had reduced treachery to a fine art. France, Russia, Great Britain, Italy and the United States particularly were honeycombed with spies. What could not be accomplished by force it was confidently hoped would be brought about by treason. It was a great plan and even today, viewed in retrospect, it looks as though it should have proved successful, it was so logical. But it is the unexpected that always dislocates the best-laid plans. Germany did not count on Belgian resistance nor on Britain's entrance into the war; she did not count on Russia's ability to mobilize her army so rapidly; she did not count on Italy and the United States ultimately throwing in their lot with the Allies.

On June 28, 1914, in the city of Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was murdered while driving through the streets. That was the spark that set fire to the powder magazine of Europe.

Nearly a month later, on July 23d, the Austro-Hungarian Government presented its demands to Serbia, demands designed ostensibly to make a recurrence of such an act on the part of Serbia impossible. The Austrian Note, which startled the government of every country in Europe, except Germany, embodied a number of drastic demands upon Serbia. The complete acceptance of the note meant that Serbia must yield her independent nationality and come under the domination of Austria.

The German ambassadors in London, Paris, and St. Petersburg announced that Germany approved of the substance and form of the Austrian Note. Serbia refused to submit to the demands of Austria and called upon Russia, who advised her to accede to all but the two demands which referred to her autonomy, and to have these two demands referred to the Hague Tribunal. This request was refused by Austria, and the Austro-Hungarian minister, demanding his passports, left Belgrade on July 28th.

Thereafter followed a week of feverish diplomatic effort to prevent war and bring about a settlement. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, laboured ceaselessly to the last moment to maintain peace and to establish the honesty of British purpose in the eyes of the world. France and Italy agreed to a conference in London to mediate in the Austro-Serbian quarrel. Germany refused. Thereafter events marched rapidly.

On July 28th Austria declared war on Serbia and bombarded Belgrade. Belgium had ordered mobilization. Germany had recalled her High Seas Fleet and the concentration of the British fleet was proceeding.

Russia had also ordered partial mobilization. On the same day the German Imperial Chancellor proposed to Great Britain that she should stand aside, allow France to be stripped of her colonies and allow of the violation of Belgian neutrality. Of course these treacherous demands were immediately refused by Great Britain.

On July 31st Germany declared a state of war to exist, issued an ultimatum to Russia, and on August 1st declared war upon her.

On August 3d, Sir Edward Grey made a speech before the British House of Commons on the events which had led up to the war.

On August 4th, upon hearing that German troops were in Belgium, Sir Edward Grey wired the British Ambassador, Sir E. Goschen, to ask that Germany respect Belgium's wishes in regard to neutrality, but no reply was given by Germany. The British Ambassador was handed his passports and shortly afterwards Britain declared war.

The following is a list of the Declarations of War which occurred during the struggle extending from July, 1914, to November, 1918, in the order of their occurrence:

1914		
July	28.	Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.
August	1.	Germany declares war on Russia.
"	3.	Germany declares war on France.

August	4.	Germany at war with Belgium.
“	4.	Great Britain at war with Germany.
“	6.	Austria-Hungary at war with Russia.
“	7.	Montenegro at war with Austria.
“	8.	Serbia at war with Germany.
“	12.	Great Britain at war with Austria-Hungary.
“	23.	Japan at war with Germany.
“	25.	Austria at war with Japan.
“	28.	Austria declares war on Belgium.
November	5.	Great Britain and France declare war on Turkey.

1915

May	23.	Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary.
October	14.	Bulgaria at war with Serbia.
“	15.	Great Britain declares war on Bulgaria.
“	17.	France at war with Bulgaria.
“	19.	Italy and Russia at war with Bulgaria.

1916

March	9.	Germany declares war on Portugal.
“	15.	Austria-Hungary at war with Portugal.
August	27.	Rumania declares war on Austria-Hungary.
“	28.	Italy at war with Germany.
“	28.	Germany at war with Rumania.
“	31.	Bulgaria at war with Rumania.

1917

April	6.	United States declares war on Germany.
“	7.	Cuba and Panama at war with Germany.
“	8.	Austria-Hungary breaks with the United States.
“	20.	Turkey breaks with the United States.
June	18.	Haiti breaks with Germany.
July	22.	Siam at war with Germany and Austria.
August	7.	Liberia at war with Germany.
“	14.	China at war with Germany and Austria-Hungary.
October	6.	Peru and Uruguay break with Germany.
“	26.	Brazil at war with Germany.
December	8.	Ecuador breaks with Germany.
“	10.	Panama at war with Austria-Hungary.
“	11.	United States at war with Austria-Hungary.

1918

February	1.	Argentine breaks off diplomatic relations with Germany.
July	15.	Haiti at war with Germany.

A NIGHT ATTACK ON THE WESTERN FRONT

A small outpost in the front line trenches signalling for a barrage with star pistols to head off a German assault.

CHAPTER III

Kitchener's Army

It was well known to the student that Germany had been preparing for conquest for thirty years. In April, 1913, a volume published by His Imperial Highness, the German Crown Prince, and dedicated to the Emperor, said:

> It is the holy duty of Germany, above all the other peoples of our old earth, to maintain an army and a fleet ever at the highest point of readiness. Only then, supported by our own good sword, can we preserve the place in the sun which is our due, but which is not voluntarily conceded to us. Certainly diplomacy can and must play its part . . . but just as lightning settles the conflict of the electrical forces in the skies, so the Sword will be the ultimate deciding factor in the world until the world disappears.

In May of the same year the German Government endeavoured to obtain the consent of the Dutch Government for the establishment of a public harbour and works on the New Waterway. The works were to be those of the Vulcan Company controlled by a great German firm of iron and steel interests. This would give Germany the opportunity, on the broad deep channel which gave access to Rotterdam on the northeast, to manipulate Holland and make her subservient to German policies and ambitions.

On June 30th the German Army Bill was finally passed without serious opposition. It gave the German Military Power, which was already the greatest in Europe, an army of 814,000 men on a peace footing and this could be increased by 400,000 men on the very day of mobilization. It was estimated in a report submitted to the Emperor that the total wealth of the nation was seventy-eight billion dollars with an annual income of eleven billion dollars.

Germany believed that England would not enter the war. She knew that there was an utter unreadiness for war in the British Empire except in regard to its naval strength. To Germany there were various and obvious signs of decadence in the British

LIBRARY

Isles. Social extravagance, class friction, socialistic propaganda, labour troubles and political bitterness were rampant. There were clear signs of disintegration and civil war in Ireland, of conflict between the military and civil power in England, of friction between the religious forces of the United Kingdom. There were, moreover, in Canada, India and other colonies, difficulties which Germany believed would prevent any immediate aid being given to the empire, even though the colonies should be so inclined.

By her preparations Germany had brought about a situation which was summed up by Count Witte, one of Russia's great statesmen, in the words:

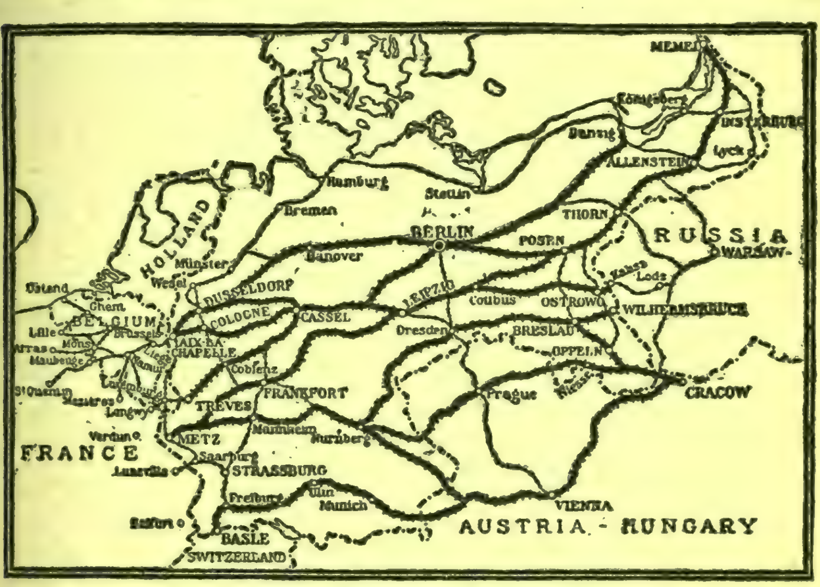
> When and how will it all end? Unless the great states which have set this hideous example agree to call a halt, so to say, and knit their subjects into a pacific unity, European war is the only issue I can perceive, and when I say war, I mean a conflict which will surpass in horror the most brutal conflicts known to human people, and entail distress more widespread and more terrible than living man can realize.

For many years the belief had been quite generally accepted by the British and French staffs that when war did come, Germany would strike at France through Belgium. It was natural, then, that the Belgian country should have proved a favourite study for the staff officers of the allied countries as well as Germany, and, in consequence, every foot of it was known most thoroughly.

For an intelligent understanding of the war on the western front it is important to grasp certain simple facts which make succeeding events understandable and interesting. An invasion of France, to the German commander-in-chief, would be determined by two considerations: the first would be the nature of the path imposed upon him by the configuration of the landscape and the defences of the frontier; the second would be the necessity of obtaining a rapid decision by a blow that would disable the French army.

The French frontier on the east may be divided into three parts: the first, a line from Belfort to Verdun; the second, the line of the Central Meuse; and the third, that of the Belgian border along the line Maubeuge-Valenciennes-Lille. The German armies advancing against France on these three sectors would, of necessity, move with different speeds. In the first sector an army would be held up by the fortress barrier, and in the second by the difficult nature of the Ardennes. In the third sector only,—that of Belgium,—where the country was open and the antiquated fortresses far apart, would speed be possible. This, then, was likely to be the area through which the Germans would attempt the crushing blow.

The outflanking of the allied left front in France would also give the enemy the best chance of obtaining an immediate decision. To pierce the line elsewhere would be a far more difficult task. Though the German army would advance all along the front and pin down the French armies, it would be the main object of the German High Command to advance with speed through Belgium, using the Belgian railways to transport the army which was to envelop and crush the allied flank opposed to it.


MEMEL
Königsberg
INSTERBURG
Danzig
Lyck
ALLENSTEIN
Hamburg
Stettin
Bremen
THORN
HOLLAND
BERLIN
POSEN
RUSSIA
WARSAW
Münster
Hanover
Wesel
Kalisz
Lodz
Ostend
DUSSELDORP
LEIPZIG
Ghent
Cottbus
OSTROWO
WILHELMSBRUCK
BELGIUM
COLOGNE
CASSEL
Lille
Brussels
Dresden
BRESLAU
Mons
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE
Arras
Maubeuge
Liege
Namur
OPPELN
Coblenz
Luxemburg
St Quentin
Mezieres
FRANKFORT
Prague
CRACOW
Longwy
TREVES
Verdun
METZ
Mannheim
Nurnberg
FRANCE
Saarburg
Luneville
STRASSBURG
Freiburg
Ulm
Munich
VIENNA
Belfort
BASLE
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND

Germany's Strategic Railways

This map of the railways connecting France and Belgium with Russia and Austria, shows how the Germans were able to transfer troops east or west as pressure of the Allies demanded.

It is true that there was a treaty signed by Prussia, Russia, England, France and Austria, which guaranteed the inviolability of Belgian territory. This was the "scrap of paper" contemptuously referred to by the German Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg. It was this scrap of paper to which England's signature was attached that brought Great Britain so quickly into the war.

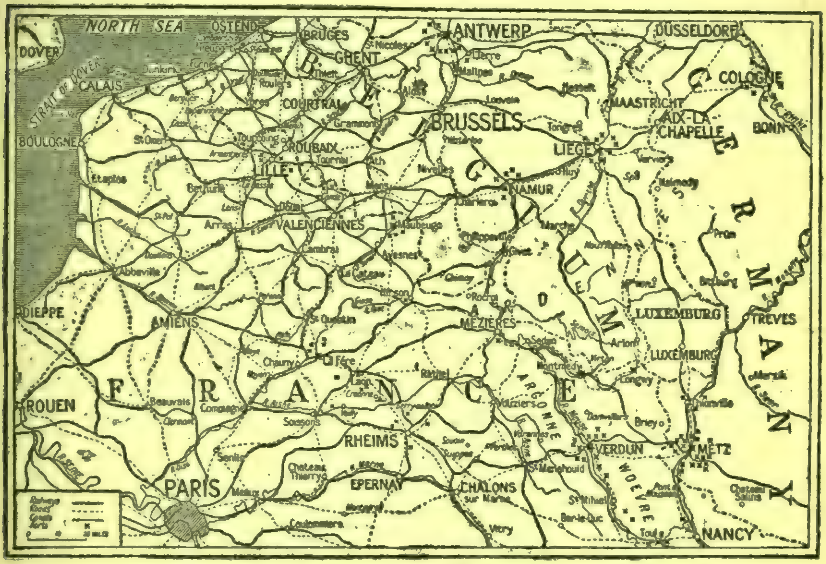
Not knowing with certainty where the blow would fall, the French had to engage the enemy along the whole front, retire when necessary and attack where any weakness showed itself, meanwhile holding her reserves for the section of front most imperilled. To make sure that France would not be the aggressor, the French army had been everywhere withdrawn to a distance of ten kilometers from the German border. The German High Command asserted that France intended to invade Germany through Belgium, and it was necessary for Germany to forestall this action. This was categorically denied by Belgium and France, but it served the German purpose as an excuse to violate Belgian neutrality.

The German army consisted of twenty-five corps. It was estimated that her total war strength would amount to seven million men, of which four million had served with the colours. Under Bismarck, Von Moltke, Gneisenau and Scharnhorst the German army system had been developed into a perfect machine, its guiding principle being that of a "Nation in Arms." Every male was liable to service from the age of seventeen. The army system was the arbiter of social fashion in Germany and it was the greatest ambition of every middle-class family to save enough money to allow at least one son to become an officer. For the nobility, particularly the Prussian, it was their one and only profession.

The great and efficient German general staff had for years perfected plans to meet every emergency. Her system of espionage was supposed to be perfect and her knowledge of every civilized country was minute in detail. It was believed by the world at large that at the word of the Kaiser, a war machine such as the world had never known would be set in motion,—a wonderful piece of mechanism unlimited in power and perfect in operation.

This belief became a reality when the German armies, clothed in their new grey field uniforms, swept over the German border with the object of seizing Paris and destroying the French army before Russia could enter the arena. The army which was to pass by the River Meuse through Belgium did not count on resistance. The German army had offered to pay for damage resulting from their passage through Belgium and apparently were astonished that their offer had not been accepted. The Belgian troops, hastily mobilized in their various coloured peace uniforms, put up a resistance which both amazed and angered the German people.

Since Germany counted on a swift blow that would destroy the French army before it could be completely mobilized, speed meant everything. An uninterrupted path through Belgium was worth more than an army to Germany. The delay caused by the unexpected Belgian resistance upset the German plans and probably saved France. It also destroyed the legend of Germany's invincibility, elaborated and repeated to the world during many long years: it proved that sand in the works would destroy the smooth operation of any machine.


NORTH SEA
OSTEND
BRUGES
ANTWERP
DUSSELDORF
DOVER
GHENT
STRAIT OF DOVER
CALAIS
COURTRAI
COLOGNE
MAASTRICHT
BRUSSELS
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE
BONN
BOULOGNE
ROUBAIX
LIEGE
LILLE
NAMUR
VALENCIENNES
Arras
Cambrai
Abbeville
DIEPPE
AMIENS
St Quentin
MEZIERES
LUXEMBURG
TREVES
ARGONNE
ROUEN
F R A N C E
B E L G I U M
G E R M A N Y
Soissons
RHEIMS
VERDUN
METZ
PARIS
EPERNAY
CHALONS sur Marne
WOEVRE
NANCY
Beauvais
Compiegne
Senlis
Meaux
Chateau Thierry
St Mihiel
Toul
Bar-le-Duc
Sedan
Longwy
Arlon
Thionville

THE WESTERN BATTLE AREA.
Showing the principal railways, roads, canals and forts from the German frontier to the sea.

On August 7th one German army under Von Kluck reached Liége and laid siege to that fortress which resisted valiantly for ten days. That delay was sufficient to enable France to fully mobilize her army and for the British Expeditionary Force to land in France. Though forts nowadays are not considered to be of much use against modern siege guns and high explosives, yet the delay caused by investing the Liége fort may have cost Germany the victory which she craved.

On August 7th the French with weak forces invaded Alsace-Lorraine. Their moderate initial success fired the French with great enthusiasm and had considerable political value. The French forces, however, were not strong enough for the purpose, and, suffering reverses, fell back upon the strongly fortified positions on the French frontier.

The rage of Germany, when England decided upon war, was most remarkable. The Kaiser gave instructions to the effect that his armies were to exterminate the treacherous English and to walk over General French's contemptible little army. The British, true to their spirit of humour, seized upon the word "contemptible" as a spur to recruiting, and the phrase became a term of undying appreciation of that glorious army, than which, it has been said, no finer has probably ever taken the field since the time of Cæsar.

On the eastern frontier the first blow was struck on August 3d, and two days later Russian troops crossed into East Prussia. On August 16th the Russian army decisively defeated the Germans at Gumbinnen while General Samsonov defeated another German army at the Masurian Lakes. The sacred soil of East Prussia as far as the Vistula was, for the time, in the hands of the Russians.

On the Galician border the first Austrian army won several successes, but the second Austrian army was being menaced by two Russian armies coming from the north and the east. In the south Serbia was driving the enemy from the borders and with the help of Montenegro was advancing into Bosnia.

Britain's control of the sea during the first two months of the war was so complete that it elicited no comment. The average man expected a series of swift engagements with enemy warships designed to disable the British fleet and obtain more or less control of the sea. But nothing happened,—that is, nothing spectacular; for the truth is Britain maintained her old supremacy of the seas by her swiftness of action and without striking a blow. The German fleet was sealed tightly in her own waters before it could make a move.

Instead of despatching a number of swift cruisers and converted merchantmen to scour the high seas and harry our mercantile marine, the German admiral played safe. Had the work done by the *Emden* been multiplied a hundredfold we would have lost untold ships, our shipping would have been disorganized, freight rates would have mounted, and our movement of troops been seriously interfered with. But more than all else our fleet would have been seriously reduced in strength by the necessity of despatching fighting ships to run down these raiders. The German admiral fortunately played our game. It would have been possible to send out numerous raiders before war was actually declared, but he employed what he thought to be a far more efficacious and less costly method to destroy our commerce,—the under-water craft.

On August 28th the first important naval action of the war took place off Helgoland. Three submarines, the E6, E7, and E8, were sent in close to Helgoland as a decoy and succeeded in drawing out of hiding some German destroyers and two cruisers. One submarine and two attending cruisers raced towards the open sea while other British destroyer flotillas steamed swiftly down from the north to cut the Germans off. The battle lasted all morning but was finished by the arrival of Admiral Beatty's cruiser squadron, when the remnants of the beaten German fleet fled homewards. In this Battle of the Bight of Helgoland, the Germans lost two new cruisers, the *Mainz* and the *Köln*, and one older cruiser, the *Ariadne*. Another cruiser and seven destroyers were seriously damaged and one destroyer sunk. The Germans lost 700 men in killed and 300 prisoners. Our casualties were 32 killed and not a single ship was lost.

The German admiral was confirmed in his policy of keeping his battleships in harbour.

The British control of the sea thereafter depended not so much on the possession of heavy battleships as on the lesser craft. The German Grand Fleet was to remain idle in its safe retreat behind great mine fields, and in consequence there was to be little use for the heavy British dreadnoughts. Germany's naval activity was devoted chiefly to the use of submarines and mines, while the British were compelled to resort to measures to render these methods futile.

By means of disguised trawlers and tramp ships Germany succeeded in laying mine fields and dropping loose mines in the course of our ships, shortly after war began. As a consequence the North Sea was closed by Great Britain to neutral ships unless convoyed, while large numbers of trawlers manned by fishermen were employed in mine-sweeping. Two fighting ships only were lost during this period through striking mines.

The German submarines, however, succeeded in sinking the light cruiser *Pathfinder* and the old cruisers, the *Cressy*, *Hague* and *Aboukir* were successfully torpedoed while assisting the first vessel struck. Six hundred and eighty men were lost when these three cruisers sank, and in consequence orders were issued that no fighting ship should stop to assist another that had been torpedoed.

The German cruisers the *Emden* and *Koenigsberg* set out as commerce raiders and managed to destroy a dozen or so British merchantmen before they were rounded up, giving an excellent illustration of what swift commerce raiders in large numbers might have accomplished for The Fatherland.

GREAT BRITAIN PLANS FOR A LONG WAR

It is needless to say that the military equipment of Great Britain in 1914 was on a modest scale. It had not been the custom for generations for her rulers to contemplate being forced to take a great part in a war in Europe, consequently her army was organized on the basis that it must be sufficient for the needs of a widely scattered empire and at the same time be able to provide an expeditionary force of three or four army corps to assist in any large contest that might arise in Europe. The nation as a whole was as one with their leaders in opposition to any attempt to create a great military system and had never supported plans for the creation of greater armaments.

The best answer to those who asserted that Britain had prepared for a European conflict is that no military preparations for such a conflict had been made. A general staff had been created a few years before for the first time in English history. Her territorial forces had also been better organized, but no machinery had been provided for the expansion of the military system to the scale which would be required in a world war. In consequence Great Britain was found with her regular army very little larger than that which she possessed in 1899 before the outbreak of the South African war. The special reserve and terri-

FIELD-MARSHAL EARL KITCHENER

British Secretary for War, who built up the British army at the beginning of the war.

FIELD-MARSHAL SIR JOHN D. FRENCH

Commander-in-chief of the British forces in France and Belgium from the beginning of the war to December, 1915.

torials, who represented the old militia and volunteers, were actually lower in numbers than their predecessors though superior in organization and efficiency.

The regulars with their reservists who completed the battalions to war strength and the "Special" reserve units, which were to act as feeders to the first line when the reservists were exhausted made up the total of 450,000 men. In addition to this the territorial force which could be employed on foreign service only if the men volunteered for it and which was only partially trained came to about 250,000 more. Of the first line troops over 100,000 were serving in India, Egypt, South Africa and the outlying colonies of the East, consequently the regular units at home were able to put in the field only three army corps and a cavalry division. This was the expeditionary force of 100,000 men on which Britain had always counted.

It was quickly realized in England that from the very nature of the war large numbers of men would be necessary and Parliament authorized an immediate enlistment of half a million men.

On August 8th recruiting was begun when Lord Kitchener arrived in the war office and asked for 100,000 volunteers for three years' service or the duration of the war. These were recruited in two weeks and the rush continued, as many as 30,000 enlisting in one day and 175,000 in the first week of September.

To fill up the existing regular and territorial battalions volunteers would be necessary but it would also be necessary to create innumerable fresh units. Lord Kitchener adopted the scheme of forming from these new units the so-called "New Army" generally known as "Kitchener's Army." It was composed of battalions attributed to the old County and District regiments and numbered on at the end of the existing regular special reserve and territorial battalions. A small and thinly populated county might raise perhaps only two or three service battalions while a large urban district in some cases furnished as many as fifteen or twenty.

At the beginning of August, 1915, two million volunteers had been enlisted for service.

The organizing of this vast multitude presented almost insuperable difficulties. The arsenals of Great Britain had been stored to provide for an army of much less than a million; they were called upon to furnish weapons and equipment for two million fresh recruits. To supply the tens of thousands of officers necessary seemed almost more hopeless and impossible. The problems of equipping, housing and feeding this new army was scarcely less onerous and difficult.

Great Britain set to work with a will; her pride had been stirred, and though waste and mistaken economy were general enough she somehow managed to provide the necessary equipment, arms and officers for this new force. The whole world was swept for material and a colossal development of her own manufactures took place. Camps composed of huts of timber or iron were erected all over Great Britain. Public buildings were utilized as barracks and the old English expedient of billeting of soldiers in private households was adopted.

The problem of providing 60,000 or 70,000 officers was the most difficult problem of all. To give a man a commission does not make him competent to train or lead a platoon. The problem was solved in several ways. Great Britain had a greater proportion of retired officers of military age than any other country. The regular army had always contained a large number of men of independent means, who, after a few years in the service went back to civil life. The same was the case with the less completely trained but still valuable officers of the special reserve and the territorials.

With the outbreak of war practically everyone of these retired officers or "dugouts" as they were called, placed themselves at the disposal of the state. A second valuable source of supply was the large number of partly trained young officers furnished by the Officers' Training Corps in the universities and public schools. Perhaps most important of all in comparison with other nations Great Britain possessed the largest percentage of raw material from which officers could be made.

These intelligent well-educated men from the so-called upper and middle classes accustomed to responsibility and to using their brains were exceptionally numerous in Great Britain; so numerous were they that a number of battalions of the new army filled with volunteers of such a class had had half of their privates given commissions within the year.

Naturally this system resulted in great variation in efficiency; some units were well-officered, others were not. In consequence some units were less disciplined and less efficient than others and it required far greater time to get them into the condition necessary to take the field.

In general the territorial first line battalions, because of their superior training, passed over the Channel first and by spring, 1915, divisions of the new Kitchener army were taking their place at the side of the veterans in France.

The old regular army had been able to hold its portion of the allied line until its re-enforcements had been improvised, trained and brought to the front.

Credit must be given to France for holding during that period nine-tenths of the Franco-British front and thereby enabling its ally to exert its maximum effort. So difficult was the situation during that period that three divisions of the Indian Contingent from India had to be brought to Europe to hold the line because every disposable white battalion was already at the front and veteran troops only such as the Indians could be employed with safety.

From the moment when the British people first learned of German atrocities in Belgium the war became a people's war, and its successful prosecution depended thereafter on the rank and file of the nation. The immediate effect of the war was the proclamation of an industrial truce; several serious disputes were at once settled and the railwaymen who had planned a campaign for the autumn put all thought of agitation aside. For some time there was real and unruffled national unity. The working classes enlisted in large numbers all over the Isles and thousands of skilled workers belonging to the indispensable trades passed over to Flanders before the industrial nature of the conflict was understood.

Numberless organizations sprang up all over Great Britain for the purpose of furthering the war in some form or other. V. A. D.'s were trained by the Red Cross and St. John's Ambulances. Hospitals were equipped and offered to the government by the hundreds at home, and scores were equipped to be sent abroad through private philanthropy. About 1,050 private houses were actually accepted by the war office for hospitals. The Red Cross societies all over the empire organized themselves for work and provided vast quantities of hospital supplies and comforts for wounded soldiers. Other organizations too numerous even to mention sprang up and did admirable service in helping on some phase or other of the work in connection with the efficiency of the army and navy.

The Y. M. C. A., the Church Army and the Salvation Army established huts, tents and equipment both at home and abroad for the purpose of providing centres for men to obtain food and entertainment. This work was undoubtedly of the highest value in helping to maintain the morale of the men.

Clubs and canteens sprang up all over the home country to minister to soldiers returning on leave from the trenches or on holiday from camps. In all of these undertakings women gave practically all of their services gratis and tens of thousands of them laboured night and day in the task of easing the burden of those who were fighting their battles.

CHAPTER IV

The Empire Springs to Arms

The official declaration of war did not commit Great Britain to sending a military force to France, but the French Government counting on military co-operation, as well as the universal opinion of England, made such military co-operation inevitable.

On August 3d the British army was mobilized; on August 4th war was declared by Great Britain; on August 5th Lord Kitchener was appointed Secretary of State for War. On August 6th the House of Commons passed a vote of credit for $500,000,000 and authorized an increase of the army by half a million men.

The railways had been immediately taken over by the Government. The record made in this crisis was an extraordinary one. Every ten minutes, for the first three weeks of the war, from every part of the country a train arrived at the shipside carrying troops and impedimenta.

The embarkation of the British Expeditionary Force began on the night of August 7th and within ten days the whole of the 100,000 men had landed in France. It was strange to note that the British people knew nothing of the despatch of the expeditionary force until it had arrived in France, though reports of the crossing were published in the American press on August 9th. The event was known to the German staff on the same day. For the most part cross-channel steamers were employed to carry the men, while tramp steamers, collected all over the Islands, were used to transport horses, guns and equipment.

Each British soldier was given a short message from Lord Kitchener which summed up the duties of a soldier and established the standard expected of him. It was characteristically British. It emphasized the obligations of the individual as a personal representative of Great Britain and therefore appealed to the highest that was in him. It was indicative of what Great Britain expected her army to live up to, and the high character of its performance upon the lines suggested was typical of the principle of the British people, just as the performance of the German army in Belgium and elsewhere was representative of a nation which sought to propagate its type of Kultur upon an unappreciative world.

> You are ordered abroad as a soldier of the King to help our French comrades against the invasion of a common enemy. You have to perform a task which will need your courage, your energy, your patience.
>
> Remember that the honour of the British army depends on your individual conduct. It will be your duty, not only to set an example of discipline and perfect steadiness under fire, but also to maintain the most friendly relations with those whom you are helping in this struggle. The operations in which you are engaged will, for the most part, take place in a friendly country, and you can do your own country no better service than in showing yourself in France and Belgium in the true character of a British soldier.
>
> Be invariably courteous, considerate, and kind. Never do anything likely to injure or destroy property, and always look upon looting as a disgraceful act. You are sure to meet with a welcome, and to be trusted; your conduct must justify that welcome and that trust. Your duty cannot be done unless your health is sound. So keep constantly on your guard against any excesses. In this new experience you may find temptations in wine and women. You must entirely resist both temptations, and, while treating all women with perfect courtesy, you should avoid any intimacy.
>
> Do your duty bravely.
> Fear God.
> Honour the King.
>
> KITCHENER, *Field Marshal.*

The British regular army of about 100,000 men crossed the channel to France without the loss of a single ship or a single man. It was a splendid tribute to the completeness of the control of the seas already established by the British navy. This wonderful feat of transportation was carried out without a hitch and the disembarkation and despatch of the British army to the front went on with similar smoothness. It was a hundred years since a British army had landed in France. No spectators or women were allowed, as in past wars, to accompany the expeditionary force from England. The organization to prevent espionage was already working well. Great enthusiasm was aroused among the French by the fine appearance of the men—particularly the Highlanders—and by their kindness to women and children. Legends of the days when Scotchmen were found in large numbers with the French armies were again remembered.

The British army was placed under the general command of General Joffre, the French generalissimo. It was a fortunate thing that neither Sir John French, the chief of the British force, nor General Joffre were jealous men, and harmony between the armies was evident from the beginning.

The Commander-in-Chief of the British army, Sir John French, was considered to be the best man on the active list, and his record had shown exceptional judgment and energy. The two infantry corps were under the command of Sir Douglas Haig and Sir Horace Smith-Dorrien, while the cavalry division was under the command of Major-General Allenby. A third infantry army corps was in process of formation in England under Major-General Pulteney.

On Friday, August 21st, the British army of two infantry corps and one cavalry division had got into position along the line Conde-Mons-Binchy in Belgium which formed the extreme left of the allied front.

Had the Allies been able to advance well into Belgium before the middle of August and join with Belgium's army in holding the Antwerp-Namur line, their position would have been favourable. The only Belgian position now available, however, was the line of the Sambre River which itself depended on whether Namur could hold out. The information available by General Joffre at the time seemed to indicate that only 200,000 Germans were in the Belgian area.

While the Allies, depending on the resistance of Namur, awaited with confidence the German expected frontal attack, that fortress fell.

FROM REVELRY TO WARFARE

When war descended upon humanity in 1914 it clouded a world which was dancing mad. A negro dance seemed to have proved delightful enough to satisfy the artistic sense of the age which demanded nothing finer. The whole world seemed possessed with a frenzy to agitate its feet.

King Edward had died in 1910 and the country had undergone the regulation period of one year of mourning. When it was ended England, particularly London, plunged into a whirl of pleasure. The rich in latter years had become steadily richer;

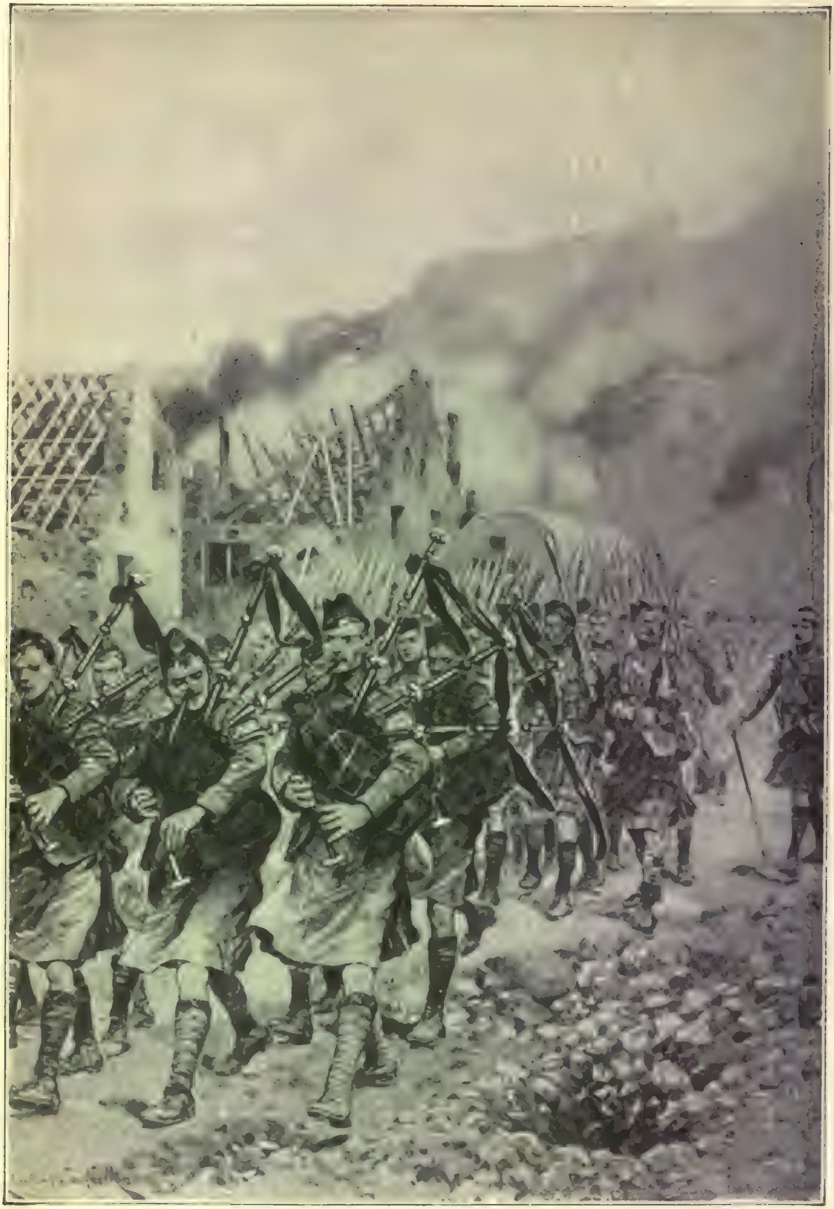
the poor stayed where they were or got poorer. Strikes disorganized industry. The strikes were settled by paying higher wages and the employers took the extra cost of production from the purchasing public by the simple expedient of raising prices. The British House of Parliament, with a vast Liberal majority, endeavoured to carry out a series of social reforms, somewhat palliative in character, but representing an earnest attempt to alleviate the sufferings of the poor.

A spirit of lawlessness and unrest could be traced to the summer of the coronation. The ostentation of the wealthy undoubtedly fomented the dissatisfaction of the poor. The new money made as the result of the industrial recovery following ten years of depression after the South African war, was often spent in riotous living.

There was the great dispute as to the House of Lords; there were railway, coal, and mercantile marine strikes. The wrangle over Home Rule had resulted in the raising and training of illegal volunteer armies in Ireland. A campaign in female suffrage was marked by violence to person and destruction of property. It seemed as if people had no object in life but pleasure and excitement. Disregard of law by a notoriously law-abiding people who seemed to have become irritable and unstable became a common thing. Socialistic ideas were making great headway among the workers both of hand and brain. The wasters and *nouveau riche* only accentuated this irritation by their irresponsibility, stupid display and waste. Alcohol seemed to gain a greater hold on the nation year by year, dragging it to lower levels of suffering and vice.

War with one gigantic sweep brushed aside all those things of lesser note that had concerned the people of Great Britain. Never had the British nation been so solid for the war. Both political parties were willing to trust to their experts and fight to a finish. There was no hate of Germany; the British people were indignant because of her actions in Belgium and because she had violated all the doctrines that they had been taught to believe.

Very speedily Britain realized her weaknesses. Her military policy which could produce only 160,000 men prepared to take the field in a great crisis was wrong in principle! Too late the words of Lord Roberts, begging the people to prepare for the inevitable



PLAYING THE CANADIAN SCOTTISH THROUGH YPRES

Scene after the battle of Langemarck, in April, 1915, in the war-scarred city, over which three great battles were fought. The Canadian Highlanders played a heroic part in the great victory which preceded the advance.

war, were realized to be sound. But providentially the politicians of Great Britain had always shown statesmanship in refusing to interfere with the efficiency of the navy. That had always been rightly held to be the first and main line of defence. Behind that screen, it was agreed that, with a fair share of luck, it would be possible to quickly build up a large volunteer army. So it would have been if there had been a great skeleton army with trained officers, but this did not exist. However, the British under Lord Kitchener with remarkable coolness set to work to make a new army of three million. The territorial system, designed for home defence only, became a volunteer army for overseas. There was no invasion, so that the building up of the vast army was taken quite leisurely.

The initial grave financial crisis was faced, a moratorium established and other measures taken to restore public confidence and safeguard national credit. Outstanding bills of exchange amounting to four hundred million pounds were guaranteed, and in a few weeks so completely had public confidence been established that war loans of three hundred and fifty million pounds were floated.

Great Britain went about her task deliberately, too deliberately many onlookers thought. There was no invading army already pouring across her borders as in France and Belgium to galvanise the country into action. The attitude of the Englishman, as it always has been, was commonly expressed in the phrase: "I suppose we shall blunder through." He believed that France and Russia would hold the German army till the British were ready; he had no realization of the terrible actualities of modern warfare or of the desperate nature of the crisis for civilization and himself. There were not, as in France, hordes of refugees, fleeing from homes devastated by shell fire and the torch, to spread throughout the land to relatives and friends the stories of German atrocities and Hunnish ruthlessness.

The sight of one shell-shattered village will do more to bring home and make clear the nature and meaning of war to one than the most elaborate and graphic description of the most vivid writer.

In France the invaders were but a few score miles from Paris and it was possible to reach the firing line from the capital in a few hours by motor car. In England, a country which had no history of real invasion for hundreds of years, there was no tradition of ferocious invaders to provide the incentive to stir up a military spirit.

Though Britain's army was small, it had had in various British colonies and protectorates more experience in real fighting than any of the other nations; it was a real professional army. Men joined it because they wanted to.

There was no compulsion, nor was there any universal military training in England. Consequently, recruiting for the new volunteer army was not too rapid because the import of the war was grasped only slowly. With no prospect of an armed invasion Britain could call on men to enlist only for the honour of the empire and her Allies. It was not realized at first, apparently, by the press or the people, that the war was Britain's war almost above all others. The British Empire was to be doomed because it, more than any other nation, had stood in Germany's path and thwarted her scheme for world aggrandizement.

The press censor in those early days when Britain's wonderful little army was winning immortal renown allowed nothing of the glorious deeds of the army to pass. Even the names of regiments, famous to conjure with, were seldom mentioned, and the wonderful stimulus which would have resulted by the recording of their deeds of valor was deliberately abandoned.

The use of the press as a publicity agent was forgotten. The employment of martial music and bands was also abandoned and one of the most useful stimulations of recruiting known deliberately put aside. To be sure, the country from end to end was plastered with posters calling for recruits, but they were naked appeals; there was no appeal to the imagination in any of them.

The national slogan at the time was also peculiar. "Business as usual" may have some claims under certain conditions, but it seemed to a spectator to indicate that the country was quite capable of carrying on the war as a side line. The feeling that business was not be disturbed was symptomatic of the moment; four years later the whole business of the nation practically was concentrated upon the one aim of winning the war. That merely indicated the fact that Britain was at last thoroughly wide awake.

Crowds of aliens, mostly Germans and Austrians, who speedily became Dutch, Belgian and Swiss, swarmed over England and did the work given up by those who enlisted. The public scandal which followed was only quieted by interning a large number of the poorer classes, while the really dangerous wealthy and titled foreigners went free and continued to mingle in society.

Great Britain was an excellent example of how a democracy, admirably fitted for deliberate action and free open discussion of matters pertaining to the social and political welfare of the country, might be quite unfitted for rapid, aggressive action in time of peril. An autocracy, which could order this or that and knew that it would be done, was far better fitted for carrying on a war, because military efficiency, divorced from political influences, would be made the sole aim. Yet, as we see later, autocracies one by one tumbled to pieces, while the democracies, assuming the nature of oligarchies, carried on to the end.

In spite of all difficulties, the voluntary system was successful to a degree and recruits came forward as fast as they could be equipped and armed. In continental countries which had conscription, preparations were all complete for putting their armies in the field. On mobilization every man knew where to get his uniform, outfit and rifle. In England this was not the case; everything had to be made. It therefore came about that the men who comprehended most and were staunch believers in the Allies' principles were the first to enlist. Recruiters quickly realized that their success depended upon their ability to make the situation clear. The men joined up rapidly enough when they realized that the country and the cause needed them. Kitchener set out to raise an army of three million and two million of them were under arms by June, 1915.

The difficulties of Britain were very great. She had not only to build up her own army and manufacture the equipment for them but she had also to manufacture for her continental Allies. The Belgian army, for example, which had gone to war with every kind and colour of uniform, was outfitted with uniforms made in England. This is a single example of what Britain was called upon to do in larger and larger proportion as the war continued. Naturally this manufacturing called for the use of millions of men and women, and made it very difficult later on to bring in general conscription, where numerous trades engaged in war manufacturing, promised exemption from military service, had renounced their labour regulations and opposition to dilution of skilled labour.

As it was, the country gradually became aroused to the situation and as its people began to understand it they perceptibly stiffened. Each military reverse on the continent only made them the more determined to see the matter through to the end. Ostentatious pleasure and sport disappeared, the sons of the educated and the nobility were almost the first to don the uniform. Their elders stayed at home, began a thousand different charities, became special constables or did anything that would be of service to the empire. One noted newspaper man I knew spent several nights a week as a look-out for Zeppelins on the roof of St. Paul's Cathedral. Another, a wealthy banker, armed with a powerful telescope, I saw fishing from dawn to dark on the rocks of Devon and watching the Channel; while still another, a university professor, laboured at the alien problem. These were examples of what tens of thousands of elderly Britishers of wealth, education and family were doing to help in the great cause.

Politically the nation was united, the official opposition having joined to support the Government. The threatened civil war in Ireland petered out and each of the belligerent factions sent a division of troops to the front. England was more solidly united in favour of this war than she had been in any other war waged by her in a thousand years.

On September 19, 1914, at Queen's Hall, London, Mr. David Lloyd George, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, made a speech to a crowded house. In an address which proved to be prophetic, he said in part:

> This doctrine of the scrap of paper proclaimed by Berlin, that treaties only bind a nation as long as it is to its interest, goes under the root of all public law. It is the straight road to barbarism . . . and the whole machinery of civilization will break down if this doctrine wins in this war. We are fighting against barbarism . . . The German peasant has been drilled into a false idea of civilization but it is a bad civilization, it is a selfish civilization, it is a material civilization. They cannot comprehend the action of Great Britain at the present moment. They say France we can understand, she is out for vengeance, she is out for territory,—Alsace and Lorraine. They say they can understand Russia, she is fighting for mastery, she wants Galicia; . . . but they cannot understand a great empire pledging its resources, its very existence, to protect

a little nation that seeks to defend herself. They think we cannot beat them. It will not be easy. It will be a long job, it will be a terrible war, but in the end we shall march through terror to triumph. We shall need all our qualities,—every quality that Britain and her people possess: prudence in counsel, daring in action, tenacity in purpose, courage in defeat, moderation in victory, in all things faith.

I envy you young people your opportunity,—an opportunity that comes only once in many centuries to the children of men. For most generations sacrifice comes in drab and weariness of spirit. It comes to you today, and it comes today to us all, in the form of the glow and the thrill of a great movement for liberty that impels millions throughout Europe to the same noble end. It is a great war for the emancipation of Europe from the thraldom of a military caste which has thrown its shadows upon two generations of men, and is now plunging the world into the midst of bloodshed and death.

The people will gain more by this struggle in all lands than they comprehend at the present moment. It is bringing a new outlook for all classes. We can see for the first time the fundamental things that matter in life and that have been obscured from our vision by the tropical growth of prosperity. We have been too comfortable and too indulgent, many perhaps too selfish, and the stern hand of fate has scourged us to an elevation where we can see the great everlasting things that matter for a nation,—Honour, Duty, Patriotism and Sacrifice.

With the mobilization of the British Expeditionary Force the United Kingdom set out to organize its full powers of manhood and material. The British Empire is a loose kind of an aggregation held together by common sympathies and ideals and often quite unconscious of its unity. The aims and objects of the various colonies are ofttimes as varied as their peoples; therefore it is exceedingly difficult to bring about any such definite organization as imperial federation. Throughout the empire there are many dissimilar view-points, often of a most pronounced character, which would make common action at most times difficult. Such a difference of opinion was the decided opposition of British Columbia to allowing the natives of India to emigrate to that province, an opposition which was not understood either in India or Great Britain because it depended largely on a local labour situation.

To onlookers before the war it might seem as though the empire was fast drifting towards dissolution, a view that was held in Germany. It might have seemed to those not of British ancestry that Canada was fast becoming Americanized, not knowing how deep was the real feeling that separated Canada from her friendly neighbour to the south.

India was commonly supposed to be a powder magazine that a spark would blow into a thousand fragments. South Africa might be expected to seize the opportunity to throw off the British yoke and Ireland was almost in the throes of rebellion.

Germany's idea of empire was a perfectly organized machine. Great Britain believed that an empire was a living thing whose several parts were essential to the growth and well-being of the whole body. The essence of British success in colonizing is that the individual develops an English mind with English ideas of tolerance, freedom and justice. The bond which held the British Empire together was one not understandable to those outside the empire; it was chiefly a spiritual bond.

The German nation stood for all that was meant by the word "efficiency." They placed all the stress on efficiency, rather than character. The British people can be most efficient, but they hate to speak of it. The train from Bristol to London averages fifty-eight and a half miles an hour. Nobody ever speaks of it. The fastest train in America, from New York to Philadelphia, on the Pennsylvania Railroad, averages forty-six miles an hour; but the Pennsylvania Railroad, in an interesting folder, tells you all about it. During the first few months of the war, that is, during the time of the greatest congestion and confusion, not one train carrying troops or supplies in Great Britain, on official schedules, was as much as ten minutes late on arriving at its destination.

In England the whole school system and training is concerned with character. A boy must have character before intelligence, health or education. Each little section of the country has a different character and each little group of people possesses its own individuality. The English passion is for variety. The person is the thing; British achievements are nothing, but British character is everything.

The Englishman has been quite satisfied to pose as the world's champion muddler. Carlyle and Wells and almost every other English author tells the English that they are stupid. Though they have produced more geniuses who have called them fools than any other people in the world, it makes not the slightest dent in their actual self-confidence.

An English paper in 1917 observed, quite coolly and casually, in an editorial, that "Of course brains is not our strong point as a nation;" and then happily went on to the terms of peace to be imposed by a victorious England on a crushed Germany.

The English wallow openly and frankly in their mistakes, stupidity and inefficiency, because their real egotism does not lie that way. They were convinced that Englishmen could in the end beat Germany because they believed that English character is tougher and more enduring than German character. The English became efficient in order to win the war, but they had no real enthusiasm for efficiency.

The English as a people cannot take a glorious or romantic view of war. They are strongly anti-militaristic and averse to bloodshed. Yet the German idea that authority must be obeyed because it is authority has no hold in England, when political or industrial issues come really to the top. For example: The Munitions Act said that strikes must not occur. Nevertheless, 200,000 South Wales coal miners struck, and beat the Government.

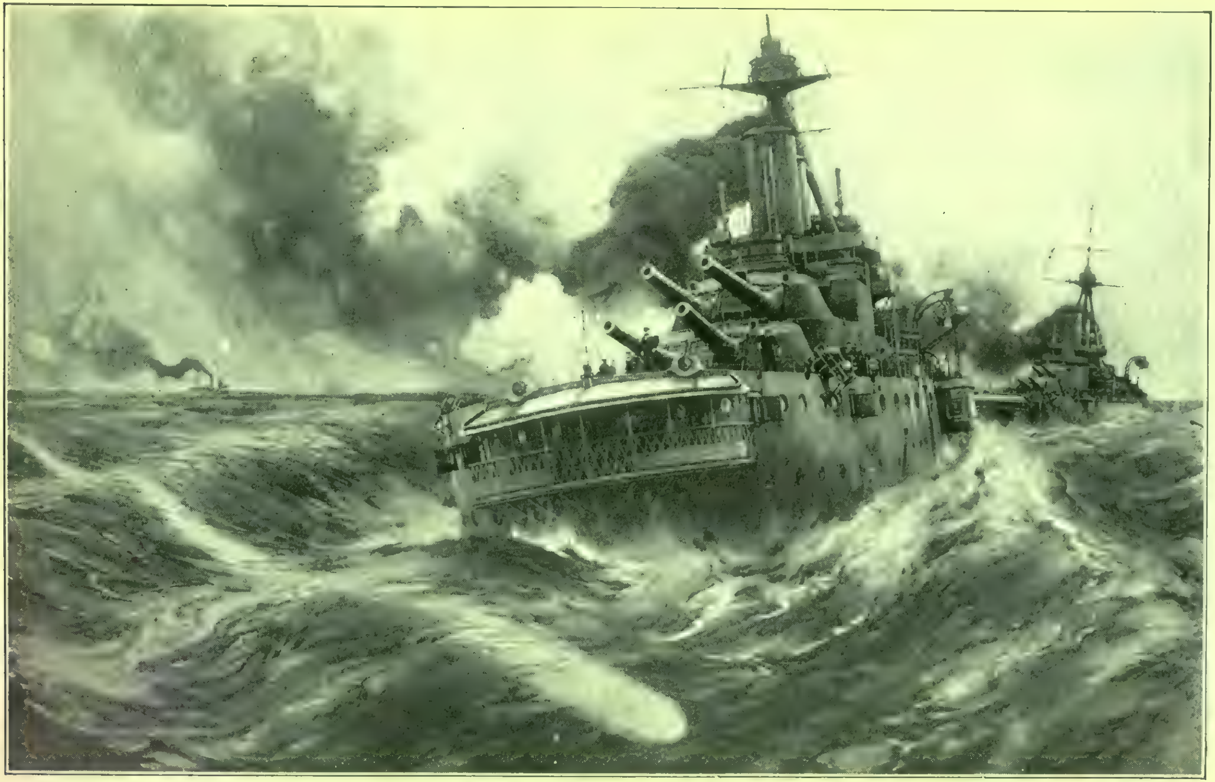
The cartoons of Capt. Bruce Bairnsfather were the most popular cartoons published during the war. In the army their weekly appearance was awaited with the greatest interest. Not one of them in any way glorified war; on the contrary the cartoonist took special pleasure in puncturing the glory of war. In the reference to the first collections of Bairnsfather cartoons the editor says: "Will it not be a standing reminder of the ingloriousness of war and of its preposterous absurdity?"

The English do not mention the dead. You may live for weeks with people who have lost close relatives, and the fact will never be mentioned. For such a people there is just one release: outright laughter. There must be no plays about the war. If there must be plays about war they must be about its humours, and so everywhere throughout London during war-time there was practically nothing but revues. Cartoons, paragraphs, sketches and verses were mostly intended to evoke a grin.

The French and Americans must have found the English suddenly gay and even frivolous; but humour was the one thing essential to England and it was their supreme outlet during the great trial. During that time their great watchword was "Carry on." England echoed minute by minute with the phrase. Thousands of Englishmen had to die; they knew they must and their women knew they must, and they said their deepest when they said "Carry on." It said nothing about the enemy, it said nothing about England; it spoke for the individual. It expressed all the inextinguishable humour, the personal control of pain and loss, the contemptuous disregard of German claims, and reliance on sheer character to find the way to smash the mechanical structure which the Germans had created and called an empire. The Englishman is purely subjective; he is the supreme individual in the midst of a cause which stirred him as he had never before been stirred in his whole history. In the midst of all his troubles, his failures, his bitterness, his depression, and hopes deferred, he looked within and said "Carry on." It was the unconscious expression of the British bulldog spirit and it carried the British Empire through to victory.

The following editorial from the *Republic* of St. Louis, in the United States, written in September, 1914, gives an interesting picture of the British Empire as seen by an outsider. It is called "An Imperial Mystery":

> Whenever Germany and France with their highly centralized and logically wrought out governments, have contemplated the fabric known as the British Empire they have smiled smiles of disdain.
>
> If ever there was an instance of "muddling along" through decades and even centuries, taking things for granted, avoiding issues, extemporizing expedients, and working always for the object immediately in view, with scant reference to any principle of outward consistency, it is supplied by the history of the making of the British Empire. This is a strange gathering together of Crown Colonies, Dominions, Protectorates, a Commonwealth, Dependencies—and India. . . . All gradations of self-government may be found in the more than ninety units of the British Empire.
>
> This fearful and wonderful fabric has no central body. There is no "Bundesrath" or Imperial Council. No collective action of its units is possible. The relation to them of the Mother Country is illogical, ill-defined. To the foreigner accustomed to the federation of the American States or of the units of the German Empire the Government looks planless and ineffective.
>
> All of which is preliminary to the observation that there is not at the present moment any more effective institution in the whole world of political fabrics than the British Empire. Whatever its machinery lacks appears to be supplied by its spirit. The defects of its body are made up for by the unity of its soul.
>
> The fact cannot be gainsaid that England who does not begin to be



A NARROW ESCAPE

A torpedo from a German U-boat passes just beyond the stern of a British war vessel.

logical as Germany or as systematic as France, in matters of government, has nevertheless the knack of making men step out of their own free will to die in her defence. She has the gift of keeping alive, across tumbling seas, round half a world, the undying bond that unites the heart to home. She has shown herself indifferent to the possession of taxing power over her colonies—but what matters it? Those colonies willingly tax themselves to send her warships, and their sons seize their rifles in time of strife to come to her aid. She has the wisdom to train and guide the swarthy children of alien races, and even foes of yesteryear, that they put their living bodies between England and England's enemies. She has a fearfully muddled theory of government, but her practice of government lays hold on the deepest things in the soul of man.

As we contemplate this wonder of an empire which is an empire of the spirit, an empire whose philosophy of politics is all wrong, but for whom the costliest things within the gift of man are poured out without stint, we are moved to wonder whether this is a prophecy of the future. Will the states of the coming days make more of the spirit and less of the machine? Will they reck less of constitutions and bills and rights and fabrics of government and more of the invisible things which touch the soul?

We do not want to seem to degrade a high theme; but English plum pudding holds the key to the mystery.

English plum pudding never saw the day when it was worth the eating. It is soggy; it is greasy; it is flavorless; it tastes like a roller composition, compact of glue and molasses, which every country printer owns. . . Yet English plum pudding is eaten on Christmas not only from Land's End to John o' Groat's House, but in Manitoba, in Khartoum, in the sides of the Himalayas, under the orange groves of New Zealand, where December is June, and in the blistering humidity of the Straits Settlements. Why? We cannot tell. But eaten it is. And English hearts, from London to Melbourne and back again, answer to the strains of "God rest you, merry gentlemen," and English eyes grow dim with happy tears.

The British Empire is unscientific. It is unreasonable. But it is mighty, with the greatness of the soul.

CANADA FIRST TO OFFER HELP

The response of the empire was astounding, even to the empire itself. From every quarter, from every land which flew the British flag, there poured to the motherland offers and appeals to help. It evoked an emotion such as no event had ever produced in the history of the United Kingdom.

The first of the colonies to offer help was Canada, who, through her Minister of Militia, General Hughes, cabled, on August 1st, an offer of a division of twenty thousand men. In rapid succession the colonies made similar offers which were all accepted in the spirit which prompted them.

Australia, in the words of her Premier, Mr. Fisher, was ready to support Great Britain with her last man and her last shilling, her navy was placed at the disposal of the British Government, and she offered a division and a light-horse brigade.

New Zealand offered 8,000 men. South Africa offered men and organized an expedition under General Botha against German Southwest Africa. It was a remarkable tribute to the empire that many old Boer officers and men travelled to London to enlist against the foes of the country of which they themselves had been mortal enemies fifteen years before.

The smaller colonies which could not send troops sent supplies. From the Barbadoes, the Falklands, the Windward and Leeward Islands came gifts of money. Ceylon sent tea, British Guiana and Mauritius sent sugar, South Africa sent corn, Australia sent butter, bacon, condensed milk and beef, Canada sent one million bags of flour as well as oats, coal, cheese, potatoes, tinned salmon, and horses. India gave huge sums of money, horses, camels, jewels, ambulances and men.

The action of India particularly thrilled the whole empire and upset one of the many factors in the German calculations. India, with her enormous population of 350,000,000, almost four times that of the United States, was supposed to be seething with suppressed discontent. Made up of many Indian peoples, who, since a century and a half ago, had been one by one brought under the sway of the British Empire, there had been at times more or less discontent among one or other caste. The British people are the greatest nation-builders on the earth, mainly because they rule with impartial justice. This fact the Indian peoples, the oldest and proudest races on earth, recognized. What freedom from constant internecine strife, and fair play, meant to them they fully understood. When the time came they were loyal to a man, for the Englishman had treated them like equals and not "niggers," as the Germans in China had contemptuously called them.

The Indian army sent two infantry divisions and a cavalry brigade to Europe at once. The larger native states offered contingents of cavalry, infantry, sappers and transport which were accepted. A hospital ship, huge sums of money, thousands of horses and a multitude of other gifts were offered by the various maharajahs of India.

Nationalist agitations disappeared as if by magic and their leaders summoned the country to rally to Britain's aid. Almost every chief offered his services, even to fight in the ranks, and many of them were allowed to accompany the Indian army. This wonderful tribute of India to the empire, and its effect on the British people can better be imagined than described.

The response of the eldest of the colonies was scarcely less thrilling. Canada had always avoided anything that might entangle her in a European war. A few years before she had refused to vote money towards a navy for the protection of her own shores, though New Zealand and Australia had gladly done so. Quebec, which held the balance of power in Canada, had strong leanings towards Nationalism. When the Conservative Government came into power in 1911, the Minister of Militia and Defence, convinced that a war with Germany was soon to come, entered upon a policy of reorganization of the militia and defences of Canada. This policy he forced upon his doubtful colleagues, some of whom were convinced that he was almost crazy on the subject; but the Minister, obsessed with the idea of a war with Germany, insisted on greater and greater appropriations for the building of drill halls, and providing other equipment and material necessary for national defence.

CHAPTER V

Canada in War Time

In 1911 the Conservative Government came into office during a year of abnormal prosperity. Shortly afterwards a season of world-wide financial stringency and universal trade slackening appeared, the periodic recurrence of which seems to be an unsolved mystery. The new Government established a parcels post, improved the mail service between Canada and Great Britain, passed certain bills designed to put Canadian commerce on an improved legal basis and improved the Canadian militia system to a considerable extent.

The activities of the Government met with much criticism throughout the country. The Dominion Grange, for example, meeting in Toronto in January, 1913, wanted reciprocal free trade in natural products between Canada and the United States and an increase in the British preference. It was said "Militarism was fostered and kept before the public by shipbuilders, manufacturers of armament, admirals, generals, colonels, etc., who strut around in gold lace and feathers and look upon the ordinary mortals as if they were made of inferior clay."

The grain growers of Canada wanted a speedy reduction and final abolition of a protective tariff. Pacifists like Dr. Andrews, a professor in the University of Saskatchewan, denounced the Minister of Militia for spending money on drill halls, the Government for proposing expenditure on dreadnoughts and condemned the British navy as an instrument of militarism.

There were troubles of labour, particularly through the flow of emigrants from Central Europe. It is notorious that these people, saturated with anarchism, are difficult to assimilate because they do not approve of modern principles of democracy such as ours. The inferior quality of emigrants coming to America was no longer of the pioneer type but the variety that can be easily exploited. Canada and the United States had unbounded faith in their powers of assimilation, but one that has not been altogether justified. As a result of this constant inflow of inferior material into the national life there is bound to be a steady slackening in social progress and a gradual deterioration of popular intelligence through dilution by large numbers of backward emigrants.

Canada is a new country, with both the opportunities for getting rich quickly and the temptations and numerous evils arising therefrom. One's status in society was largely gauged by the amount of money one possessed. Consequently many people became indifferent to the rights of others and climbed the ladder of success by means often dishonourable. Speculative cunning as a means of accumulating wealth rapidly was honoured just as much as the thoroughgoing honourable methods of our ancestors.

The ignorant foreigner was preyed on by the cupidity of business men and his ignorance was made use of by the politician to match his vote against those of better citizens and exclude the latter in the control of local government. In the year ending March, 1913, there were 400,000 emigrants to Canada, of these 150,000 were British, 139,000 Americans and 112,000 Continental Europeans. The emigrant blood imported by our captains of industry through well-known and well-established channels was chiefly drained from the lower strata of Europe, below standard physically, intellectually and morally.

Many observers were puzzled or critical about the backward tendency they noted in social morals as indicated by the kind of song, dress and dance most popular. The average American song was drivel, if not worse, the modes of dress were about as indecent as they had been in many centuries, while cabaret shows, afternoon dances with turkey trots, tangos and grizzly bears were the rage.

Short-haired women and long-haired men declaimed on practical eugenics as the one and only cure for all social ills.

Strikes became very numerous. Mr. Crowther, the Minister of Labour at Winnipeg, said, on July 3, 1913, "We have a great country with boundless resources and we want intelligent and industrious emigrants to come to this country, and we cannot have too many of them. It is the large influx of money by immigration that is causing prosperity."

During the big mining strike in British Columbia with its accompanying riots the Victoria *Colonist* of August said: "It is very clear that steps will have to be taken to prevent the interference of alien agitators in the industrial affairs of Canada. What has happened is practically that the organization known as the United Mine Workers of America have declared war against our institutions. The possibility of the repetition of such a state of things must be prevented, even if very drastic means have to be resorted to."

At a labour mass meeting held in Vancouver on August 21st, most violent speeches were made, in which one United Mine official from the United States declared that any man allowing his sons to join the army or navy was a traitor to his country.

Other labour troubles occurred during the year amongst the Fraser River fishermen, and amongst C. N. R. workmen at Lillooet in November.

The financial stringency in Canada was supposed to be due to some extent to over-speculation, an evil from which the country was suffering. A large proportion of the people had been making easy money by selling things, bought not for use, but for speculative purposes.

An English financier expressed the view that small but ambitious towns of less than 100,000 population were too much inclined to run into debt. In their eagerness to build cities, officials of these smaller municipalities, frequently backed up by the citizens, became extravagant in local improvements, bond issue following bond issue in rapid succession to provide funds for public institutions and improvements which were not only far in advance of their real needs, but were very expensive, luxurious and a great burden to the taxpayer.

These improvements made times good and money plentiful while in course of construction; in the depression which inevitably followed, serious financial difficulties were encountered by those who had to meet the civic obligations. Sir Max Aitken stated quite frankly that Canadian municipalities and provinces had been over-borrowing and must wait until the effects had worn away.

Public opinion accepted the situation as one of necessary reaction and recuperation. The condition which was at once the cause and result of the general situation was that of building operations. With the money tightness came reduced construction, upon which followed unemployment, lessened circulation of money and civic depression. One of the most depressing factors of the business situation was the inactivity of the larger industries of the Dominion.

The cost of living in Canada was steadily mounting before the war; one of the reasons declared was that high wages paid in towns took farm boys and girls to the city, consequently there was reduced production on the farm and the products of the farm increased in value. Peter McArthur stated in the press, in October, 1913, that farmers could no longer hire help at a rate that left it possible for them to make farming pay. He also stated that the high cost of living was not due to the rise in the price of foodstuffs but rather to the demands of fashion, costly houses, home furnishings, decorations and entertainments.

In Canada the cost of living had increased from 1900 to 1911 by fifty-one per cent.

A journalist viewing the press from the inside said, "What is the great indictment against the newspaper of today? It is insincerity. There are two ways of explaining this insincerity. One is to say that the newspaper, run for some owner's individual profit, must depend for its success upon its circulation; its acceptance by the masses or, at least, by a large portion of the reading public. It leaves the impression that the actual editors and reporters are a lot of conscious liars. The actual fact is that we are far more degraded than that. We are a lot of unconscious liars. We do not even care about the truth. All we care about is the 'story'—the special side of the story which we think our paper wants—when we begin to 'root' for something other than our own convictions, our convictions take flight. I killed my conscience during my first year of newspaper work."

Upon declaration of war there was no publicly expressed difference of opinion as to Canada's duty and obligation. It was acknowledged that her obligations were those of a young virile nation whose leaders were convinced that the war about to be fought by Great Britain was for the maintenance of the liberty of the world. As the weeks passed the conviction, previously held by a few, that British institutions and British ideals hung in the balance and would forever perish should the forces of militarism and autocracy prevail, became general throughout the land. In a country like Canada, free from war for more than a century, it was natural there should be some who found it hard to realize the situation. Peace with many had become almost a religion. Organizations to maintain the peace of the world had been highly popular, and speakers like Goldwin Smith, Norman Angell, Carnegie and J. A. MacDonald were always certain of large audiences and a sympathetic hearing.

Sir Wilfred Laurier, the leader of French Canada, had always kept free from anything that would necessitate the Dominion coming to the assistance of Great Britain in case of war. The national sentiment of Quebec was strong and the farming population of Canada was unsympathetic to any expenditure on the army or navy.

The arguments commonly advanced by peace propagandists like Angell were that we could not possibly have war because the banking associations would refuse loans; that it was to the interest of commercial men of the world to preserve peace; that the working men of the world by strikes would prevent war, and that a group of nations could by commercial boycott bring the refractory nation to time. Many articles were written on this theme in the press. The wave of pacificism seemed to increase steadily up to the very month of the war.

On the other hand MacPhail of McGill University, Mavor and Hutton of Toronto and many others vigorously preached the danger of pacificism in the face of German armament, and advocated a strong British navy and adequate military defences. The chief exponent of the vigorous school of national defence advocates was Colonel Hughes, who, most fortunately, happened to be Minister of Militia and Defence at the moment.

THE OUTBREAK OF WAR IN CANADA

The regular forces of Canada at the beginning of the war consisted of 3,000 men, while the active militia consisted of about 47,000 officers and men.

An offer of a division was immediately cabled to Great Britain and accepted and the call issued for 20,000 men was answered with an enthusiasm which had rarely, if ever, been witnessed in any British colony. In less than a month 40,000 men had volunteered

THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE
Governor-General of Canada.

SIR ROBERT LAIRD BORDEN
Premier of Canada.

and the Militia Department was compelled to refuse further recruits.

Wealthy citizens vied with each other in offering equipment and batteries, while large sums were raised to provide for the dependents of those who volunteered.

Public men of Canada offered to help in the way in which they were best fitted. The Leader of the Opposition, Sir Wilfred Laurier, united with the Premier, Sir Robert Borden, and party activity ceased. From the gold-fields of the Yukon and the slopes of Hudson's Bay, from the Rockies on the west to the Atlantic on the east, from workshop and mine, from farm, office and forest Canadians trooped to the colours. Old members of the Royal Canadian Regiment, the Strathcona Horse and North West Mounted Police clamoured for re-enlistment.

It was not the first time that Canadians had aided the empire. In the Crimea, in the Indian Mutiny and in South Africa Canadians had fought for the mother-country, but there had been no occasion before in which the very existence of the empire had been threatened; there had been no great principle at stake for which men could gladly go forth to fight and die. Consequently when the news flashed over the Dominion calling for 20,000 volunteers to fight the War Lords of Europe there was a response which was astounding.

A great wave of patriotism passed over the country leaving hundreds of thousands of Canadian men wild to help in the crisis. Young men who were free volunteered at once; others with homes and business ties made desperate efforts to arrange their affairs and join the local battalion. Men of an older age cursed their fate and made futile efforts to get oversea in some menial capacity or other and were heartsick that military exigencies made it absolutely necessary to adhere to military regulations and establishments.

It was not militarism that inspired Canadians, for the militia in Canada had been looked upon with a good-natured tolerance as a sort of hobby for a few enthusiasts. Comparatively few Canadians really believed that war would come, yet Sir Robert Borden and General Hughes were perfectly certain that war was inevitable, as were many of the militia officers who had studied the situation and knew the German mind. It was therefore a much finer thing that led Canada's sons to leave their homes, give up their ease and comfort to enter upon a career that meant discomfort, subordination of self, suffering and possibly death. They came forward freely and without constraint to offer themselves and their lives, if necessary, for the defence of the empire.

They perhaps saw more clearly in perspective than the Britisher that the existence of the empire was at stake, that if Britain fell Canada would be the next and that therefore they were fighting for their own homes.

The spirit which mostly dominated the Canadian volunteer, though perhaps often not quite understood, and never expressed, was the spirit of true patriotism which involved the love of justice, liberty and country.

The words of the Premier of Canada, Sir Robert Borden, spoken a little later, expressed this feeling:

> I have listened with the deepest possible appreciation to the words which have been spoken of the action of Canada in this war. That action was due to no Government, to no statesman or group of statesmen. It was due to the spirit of the Canadian people, a spirit which will make the cause for which we are contending victorious, and which will pervade the dominions to the end. I do not need to tell you of the part that Canada has played and the part she proposes to play. But it might not be amiss for a moment to allude to the remarkable circumstance that four great overseas dominions, self-governing dominions of the empire, have been actuated by a common impulse at this juncture—Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada! Why have all these great free nations sent their men from the remotest corners of the earth to fight side by side with you of this island home in this quarrel? Why in Canada do we see those who are the descendants of those who fought under Wolfe, and of those who fought under Montcalm, standing side by side in the battle-line of the empire? Why, coming down to later days, do we see the grandson of a Durham, and the grandson of a Papineau, standing shoulder to shoulder beyond the Channel in France or Belgium? When the historian of the future comes to analyze the events which made it possible for the empire to stand like this, he will see that there must have been some overmastering impulse contributing to this wonderful result.
>
> One such impulse is to be found in the love of liberty, the pursuit of ideals of democracy, and the desire and determination to preserve the spirit of unity founded on those ideals, which make the whole empire united in aim and single in purpose. But there was also, in all the overseas dominions, the intense conviction that this war was forced upon the empire—that we could not with honour stand aside and see trampled underfoot the liberties and independence of a weak and unoffending nation whose independence we had guaranteed. And, above and beyond all that, was the realization of the supreme truth—that the quarrel in which

we are engaged transcends even the destinies of our own empire and involves the future of civilization and of the world.

We must not forget that in this war we are confronting the power of a military autocracy more highly organized and more formidable, perhaps than was ever any nation before in history. I am sure that the military strength which has been developed by our chief antagonists, has surprised the whole world; and I think that this war will bring to us a very vital question as to the future of democratic institutions. We have always cherished in these islands, and in the oversea dominions as well, the ideal of orderly government coupled with that of individual liberty. It remains to be seen, as the war proceeds, whether individual liberty within the British Isles and the overseas dominions, is coupled with so strong a sense of duty and of service to the state—whether in peace or in war—as to make it possible for us to withstand the onslaught of so formidable a foe.

For myself I have no doubt as to the issue.

CANADA UNITED TO UPHOLD THE HONOUR OF THE EMPIRE

The press clearly expressed the feeling of the vast majority of Canadians when it said that when Britain was at war Canada was at war, and that the struggle was one of autocracy against democracy, that British ideals of peace and principles of liberty must be preserved even at the cost of all the resources of the country. It was fully understood that as a branch of the United Kingdom our interests were one with theirs and that we must co-operate to our fullest extent to carry the war to a successful conclusion. It was recognized at last that the Canadian policy, due to the action of the pacifist element, had left the country poorly prepared to take immediate action, or protect our own shores and shipping.

The Canadian Government in the days of suspense preceding the declaration of war kept fully in touch with the situation in Europe by cable. On July 30th the Minister of Militia appeared at Ottawa from his summer home. Immediately rumours of the mobilization of an army of 20,000 men began to appear. On August 1st the Governor General, the Duke of Connaught, on behalf of the country cabled to the Colonial Secretary suggesting that a military force be raised for service abroad, and asking for suggestions from the naval and military authorities. He gave further assurance to the British that in event of war being declared the Canadian people would be united in the common resolve to make every effort and sacrifice to maintain the honour and integrity of the British Empire.

A despatch of appreciation was received from the British Government, and on August 4th a second despatch came suggesting that steps to enable prompt action should at once be taken. A few hours afterwards war was declared.

At the same time a message came from King George thanking Canada for its support, and was answered by the Governor General who said: "Canada stands united from the Pacific to the Atlantic in her determination to uphold the honour and traditions of our empire."

On August 6th the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Harcourt, cabled to the Governor General at Ottawa saying: "His Majesty's Government gratefully accept the offer of your Minister to send expeditionary force to this country and would be glad if it could be despatched as soon as possible."

Thereafter events moved rapidly. On August 7th two submarines were purchased from a Seattle firm and quietly transferred to Esquimalt. Wireless and cable messages were strictly censored and suspected enemy agents were kept under observation. A million bags of flour, valued at three million dollars, were offered to the British Government by the Canadian Government and accepted. The size of this gift may be appreciated by the fact that a million bags of flour required two hundred trains of thirty cars each to transport it.

All kinds of Orders in Council were promulgated covering export trade to enemy countries, to prevent the aiding of the Central Powers, to control espionage, trading with enemy agents, defining the status of enemy aliens who pursued their ordinary avocations and listing of merchandise not to be exported. Provision was also made for the financing of Canadians stranded abroad during the crisis.

At the brief opening of the Canadian House for four days, on September 18th, under conditions which made all men grave and thoughtful, the Premier said, in concluding his speech:

> In the awful dawn of the greatest war the world has ever known, in the hour when peril confronts us, such as this empire has not faced for one hundred years every vain or unnecessary word seems a discord. As to our duty all are agreed we stand shoulder to shoulder with Britain

and the other British dominions in this quarrel and that duty we shall not fail to fulfil as the honour of Canada demands; not for love of battle not for love of conquest, not for greed of possessions but for the cause of honour to maintain solemn pledges to uphold principles of liberty, to withstand forces that would convert the world into an armed camp, yea in the very name of the peace that we sought at any cost save that of dishonour.

The Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, for the first time in Canadian history was the leader of a united people, and in a crisis without parallel he rose to the occasion. History will pay a high tribute to this great statesman who quietly and with infinite patience handled all problems with a precision and sureness of judgment that made him stand out even in conferences of the great statesmen of the empire in later years.

When Canadians, early in August, awoke to the fact that the greatest war in history was beginning they were forced to that realization more by financial conditions than anything else, yet the immediate response of volunteers was remarkable. On August 6th, when it was officially announced that a division was to be assembled in Quebec, General Hughes stated that he had already received offers of five times the number of volunteers required and that 100,000 could be raised if necessary.

The voluntary offers of many patriotic citizens throughout the country indicated how deep-felt was the anxiety to serve in the great crisis. At Montreal Mr. A. Hamilton Gault gave $100,000 towards the expenses of a regiment of men who had already seen active service. This regiment was recruited very rapidly, ninety per cent of its members being Old Countrymen.

Mr. John C. Eaton of Toronto offered $100,000 with which to equip a battery of machine guns mounted on motor trucks. The Honourable Clifford Sifton also offered a battery of guns mounted on motor trucks, and many other magnificent offers were made which indicated the wonderful spirit of service that had sprung into being throughout the country.

On August 6th orders were issued for the enlistment of 21,000 men, mobilization to take place in Valcartier, a village about sixteen miles from Quebec among the blue Laurentian hills.

CHAPTER VI

The Retreat from Mons

The German army entered Brussels on August 20th and poured through the city southward. One German army corps had gone north to keep in touch with the Belgian army retreating to Antwerp. The main stream, consisting of Von Kluck's army, moved south to attack the allied left at Mons and Tournai.

The second army under Von Buelow marched towards the crossings of the Sambre River line held by the fifth French army. To the left of the French fifth army the British held the line through Binchy, Mons and Conde. Behind the British lines General Sordet's cavalry corps rested. Sir John French's army in the Mons position consisted of the First and Second infantry corps and Allenby's cavalry division. On August 21st and 22d when they reached the Mons position the men at once began entrenching. The exact force of the enemy was unknown but the airmen had seen enough of the German advance to make it clear that the attack would be in considerable force. The plan of the French staff was to meet the enemy's attack on the Charleroi-Mons line and after breaking the first attack assume the offensive and advance, pivoting on Namur. Such an operation, if successful, would make possible the reoccupation of Brussels and a junction of the British left with the Belgian army retreating from Antwerp.

The line held by the British was about twenty-five miles in length and the defending force consisted of about 75,000 men and 250 guns. This gave Sir John French only about 3,000 men to the mile, a number which was sufficient because the men were thoroughly trained fighters. It left him no reserves however, and as a consequence he was compelled to use his cavalry division for that purpose placing the four brigades in rear of the left flank with orders to move to the support of any threatened part of the line.

The Fifth cavalry brigade scouting far to the front on August 22d came in contact at various points with the enemy's advance patrols. In these encounters the British were everywhere successful in driving in the advanced parties of the German cavalry. The presence of large bodies of German infantry was discovered by these operations. On Saturday the 22d while the British cavalry was thus engaged Von Buelow attacked the fifth French army, and as the day wore on fierce fighting developed around Charleroi. The bridges were captured and early on Sunday morning the Germans began crossing the Sambre. A surprise attack from the right combined to make the frontal attack by Von Buelow a success. At the same time the fortress of Namur collapsed, and late on Saturday the French army along the Sambre had not only Von Buelow pressing on the front but two other army corps attacking the right flank. Under this pressure the fifth French army gave way and began its retirement southwards without, unfortunately, informing General French of the situation. Consequently the British General, under the impression that the allied army on his right was still holding firm, was led into fighting a battle against greatly superior numbers in a most dangerous position. On Sunday, August 23d, Von Kluck brought into action against the British not only his own army but the right of Von Buelow's victorious army.

It is well to note that farther to the right of the allied line the Germans, after driving in the right of the fifth army, had succeeded in delivering a successful flank attack against General Langley's army. The two flanks exposed by the break in the front were attacked and a wedge driven into the allied line. This was the decisive factor in compelling the general retreat. As a consequence the British army was left isolated around Mons. This fact should be appreciated in following the magnificent performance of the British force in fighting a hopeless battle and extricating itself from the pursuit of overwhelming numbers.

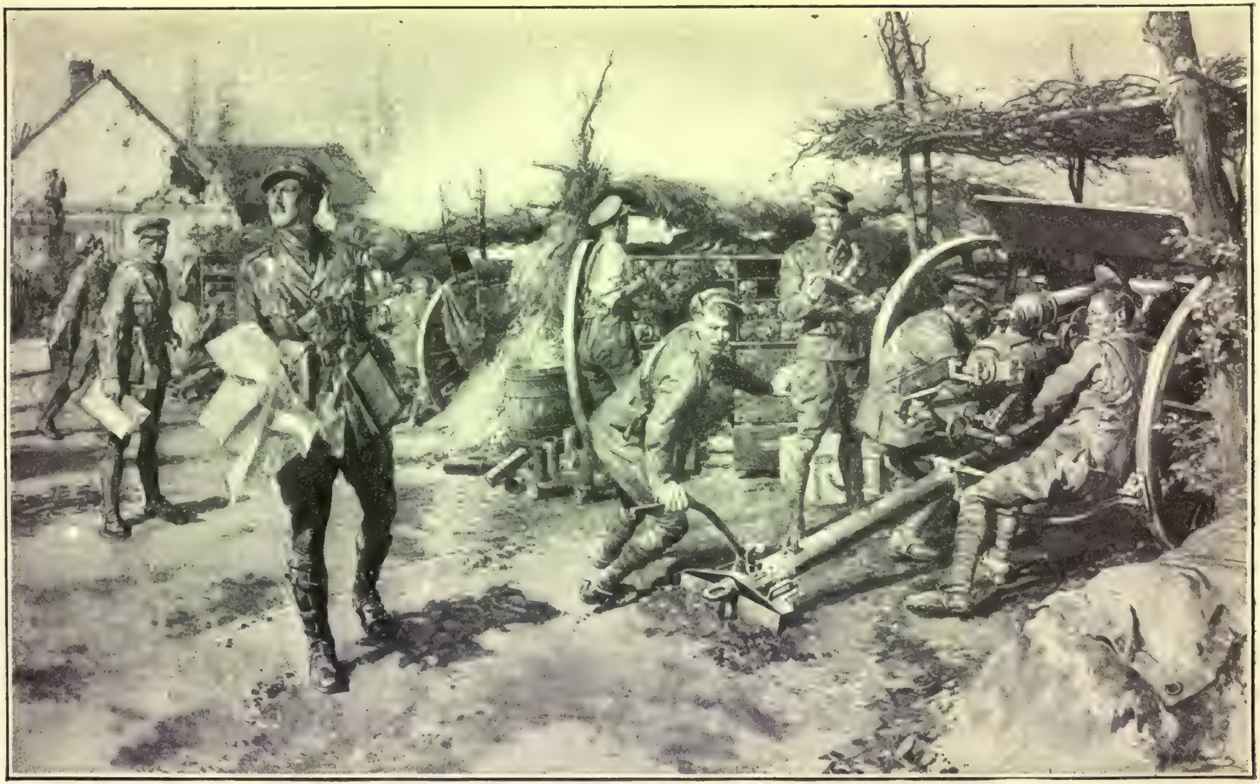
Sir John French, relying on the information supplied by his Allies, awaited Von Kluck's attack with confidence. The attack began at noon and in half an hour the artillery was thundering all along the front of twenty-five miles. At first the enemy's fire was ineffective, but soon aeroplanes flying high over the British lines dropped smoke bombs on our artillery positions. The black cloud of smoke rising from the places where they fell served to locate our positions and almost instantly the enemy shells began to explode in the spots thus pointed out.

The British soldiers, confident in their marksmanship, fired deliberately as on targets at Aldershot. The targets were easy, for the German attack was pushed without consideration of life and with reckless haste. The enemy, to the great surprise of the British regulars, advanced in dense masses and was mowed down in great numbers, while the German rifle fire was strangely ineffective. The enemy struggled on, however, and as his withered ranks fell back other waves came on in desperate efforts to push through. Sometimes these massed attacks would almost prove successful, when with cheers the British would dash forward with the bayonet and the enemy, unable to stand the steel, would be forced to seek cover. But the Germans could afford to waste life in the effort to wear down the defence and the attacks were pushed almost continuously. Around the bridges particularly the fighting was most severe; later on when the enemy's overwhelming superiority and numbers became apparent all our troops were withdrawn to the south side of the river and the bridges blown up.

In the first stage of the battle the German effort was directed mainly against the exposed British right flank. As a consequence it was necessary for Sir Douglas Haig to draw in his right and slowly fall back. This left Mons the apex of an angle at which the front of the First and Second corps met. It also made it possible for the Germans to make converging attacks from the front and flank. Sir John French therefore directed that Mons, if threatened seriously, should be abandoned.

At this time a telegram arrived from General Joffre informing the British commander that the French army was in full retreat and that not less than three German army corps were attacking the British. It seemed almost certain that the 75,000 British were opposed by probably 200,000 Germans. A victorious German army was also pushing forward past his right flank in pursuit of the French and probably 40,000 more of the enemy were sweeping round his left. If a prolonged stand at Mons were attempted it was certain that the British army would be enveloped and destroyed and accordingly it was decided to retreat, since the position of the British army was no longer tenable.

The first stages of the retirement began Sunday evening. As the transport columns and ambulances streamed backwards towards France the country people fled from their homes and the marching columns were encumbered by crowds of fugitives.



WITH A BRITISH BATTERY AT THE FRONT
The tense moment when an order arrives by field telephone from the observation officer.

General French's plan in retreat was to check the Germans on one side by threats of a counter-attack. While this was in progress the other corps was to fall back to a designated position, behind which the First corps would retire. When it was well upon its way the Second corps would in its turn retreat and form upon its left. There is no operation so difficult as a fighting retreat in the face of superior numbers. It requires sound, cool judgment on the part of the commander and officers and absolute steadiness on the part of the men. General French's method was in general very successful and the British succeeded in preventing the Germans from bringing on a decisive battle. Allenby's cavalry during the various retreats successfully protected the endangered flanks and prevented any possible enveloping movement.

On Tuesday, a day of intense heat, the wearied British troops marched southward to a new position about the town of Le Cateau, east of Cambrai. That night the men were so exhausted that they could not proceed farther without resting. Before midnight the wearied British troops, resting in bivouac, were attacked by German columns which had marched through the woods instead of along the burning highroads. The attack which was pushed vigorously was broken at every point and was called off for the time being.

At dawn orders came again to march but the men of the First corps were so utterly exhausted that it was decided they should not be placed in the fighting line that day. This plan proved impossible, for the Germans had marched four army corps during the night to a position opposite the front of Smith-Dorrien's Second corps. The attack, supported by some 600 guns, began at dawn and Smith-Dorrien found it impossible to retreat as ordered until he had beaten off the enemy's attack. Unfortunately no support was available because the First corps was utterly played out. Smith-Dorrien had no time to entrench the position. For eight hours the infantry not only held their ground but frequently counter-attacked assisted by gallant charges by Allenby's cavalry and the wonderful support of British artillery outmatched by four to one.

Von Kluck unable to break the British line by frontal attacks began a great enveloping movement of our flanks with the result that certain German batteries secured positions in which they could enfilade the British line. In order to avoid annihilation Sir John French ordered retirement and late in the afternoon Smith-Dorrien successfully moved what was left of his three divisions. The march of the Second corps that night, wearied with continuous fighting, is one of the remarkable events of the war. The men though tired marched steadily, horses dropped between the traces and men sat down exhausted by the roadside; guns overturned in the ditch were rendered useless and left. When horses could no longer draw the loads the loads were discarded.

An eye-witness says: "I dozed in the saddle to waken with a start but still nothing but the creak and rumble of wagons and guns and the tramp, tramp of the men. The overpowering desire for sleep, the weariness, and ache of every fibre and the thirst as I have only thirsted once before and that was in the desert near Khartoum. As dawn was breaking over the hills the column still creaked and groaned its way more asleep than awake but still moving, a wonderful triumph of will over human frailty. The men, worn and gaunt, looked as if they had just recovered from serious illness."

The critical day for the British force had been the battle of Le Cateau. Smith-Dorrien's dogged resistance on that day not only saved the army but broke the vigour of the German pursuit. On the day of the battle the First corps had marched southward to the valley of the Oise without serious menace from German pursuit. On the 27th and the 28th the retreat was continued in two columns. The First corps under Haig moved along the line of the Oise towards La Fere, and Smith-Dorrien with the Second corps marched further to the west by St. Quentin to Chaulny and Noyon.

For the first time the British had some effective support from the French when General Sordet's cavalry corps came into action relieving Allenby's hard-worked cavalry. General D'Amade with two French reserve divisions also closed in from the direction of Arras and threatened the right flank of the German pursuit; on the other flank the First and Third French corps moving forward on the right of the fifth army took off some of the pressure of the enemy.

On Friday night, August 28th, the whole of the British Expeditionary force was assembled along the Oise River from La Fere to Noyon weary after six days of fighting and marching but with spirit unshaken. For the first time in nearly a week all the men had a good eight hours' sleep, comfortable meals and the refreshment of a bath. On Saturday, much to the delight of all, there were no marching orders, the army being given a holiday for rest and reorganization.

It must not be inferred, as newspaper reports led one to believe at the time, that the Germans were directing all their strength against the British. The French army had been beaten all along the line and forced to retreat on the whole front. The French army however, was not destroyed and was still retiring until the opportunity presented itself of making a stand. It is an elementary principle of war that the objective of an army in the field is not the conquest of territory or cities but the destruction of the main fighting force of the enemy. Had such occurred and the allied armies been broken up and forced to surrender Paris and France would fall with certainty.

After forcing a passage across the Aisne the German army to the centre was directed upon Rheims and Châlons. Long before the enemy's advance had reached this point it was obvious that the right of the French position on the heights of Champagne was being turned and the retreat of the allied left was renewed. The plain fact was that the French centre was being steadily forced back by the huge masses which the Germans had accumulated against it, which had heavily defeated it at several points and was now pushing it towards the upper Marne River. To conform to this movement the retreat of the British began afresh towards the Marne in the neighbourhood of Meaux.

On September 3d the British force, after hard fighting in the woods of Compeigne and Villers-Cotterets woods, reached the Marne River and crossing it blew up the bridges behind them. Two days later the British force was concentrated some miles further south on a tributary, the Grand Morin, and the long retreat from the Belgian front was at an end.

It was a wonderful achievement. The men had gone straight from the train or long marches into action and almost every hour of every day since they had been retreating. Daily they came into close combat with greatly superior forces of the enemy and it would have been small wonder if the heart of the men had broken under the strain. Such conditions are desperately trying to soldiers' nerves. The men and officers knew nothing of the general situation; they had fallen back in complete uncertainty as to what was happening and could only suspect that the Germans were winning because they were the better army. To have preserved discipline and even retained gaiety and humor was an achievement almost more remarkable than a great victory.

The performance of the French army was not less splendid. It had begun with the defeat at Charleroi, Dinant and Danchery. The French soldier is not supposed to possess the traditional phlegmatic temperament of the British and it was therefore an exceedingly trying experience for the French troops and their Colonials.

The retreat of the Allies from the Sambre to the Marne will live among the great retreats in history. The British performance from a military point of view was the most difficult part of the operation. The total losses up to the time of our halt on the Marne amounted to 15,142 in the ten days. The comparatively small losses, the excellent discipline and morale preserved in Sir John French's troops were the distinguishing features of the retreat. When the time came to turn and strike, his men were as eager and confident as they were on the first day of the battle.

The German war machine had certainly proved its efficiency. The invasion of East Prussia by the Russians had been stopped and the tide of battle had clearly turned in favour of German arms. In the west fortress after fortress had fallen, Belgium had been overrun, its Capital occupied, its army pent up behind the forts of Antwerp. In ten days the allied armies of France and England, which had begun the offensive along the frontier, had been driven back one hundred miles to that valley which Napoleon had held to be the last defence of Paris.

A long list of battles won had been added to the annals of Germany. Everywhere the allied army had yielded ground day by day, and France had been inundated by the flood of German soldiers sweeping over the countryside. It seemed as if the great German plan was working out with mathematical precision, France would be swiftly crushed, and then the armies, flushed with victory, would be transferred to the eastern battlefront to deal with the Russians.

On the 4th September the French Republican Government had left Paris for Bordeaux; Paris was being bombed daily by

German airmen, and strayed and wounded soldiers appeared on the streets. Up to this time the citizens of the French capital had been singularly cool and unconcerned, superficially at least. When, however, the roar of cannon and the sound of bridges being blown up were heard in the suburbs of Paris a considerable exodus began of people who dreaded a siege. Many fled to England and the steamers that left French ports were so crowded that there was not even standing room on the decks. Probably one-third of the normal population of the Capital moved out.

General Gallieni had been appointed Military Governor of Paris. The newer fortifications of the city constructed after 1870 consisted of a second outer circle of forts, redoubts and batteries covering a circle of more than seventy-five miles. These defences, however, had been neglected. The amount of barbed wire in the stores for example, did not suffice to construct an entanglement for even one front of the great fortress. The French staff therefore realizing that Paris could not withstand a siege concentrated their efforts on making a siege impossible by a counter-stroke against the enemy's advance.

The German staff, on the other hand, was convinced that the Allies' forces were already not only beaten but demoralized by the ceaseless pressure of the pursuit. So far during the retreat there had been no sign of any combined counter-attack or even of an attempt at a general stand along the line and the Germans did not anticipate any danger from Paris. Von Kluck, therefore, took the risk of swinging around and pushing his army corps between the eastern defences of Paris and the extreme left of the allied line. There is little doubt that his general instructions were to cut the Allies off from the Capital, not with any view of an immediate investment, but in order to outflank their left and either roll up their line or force them to continue their headlong retreat to the south. He had come to regard the British army as virtually out of action.

According to the German theory an army of less than 100,000 men driven for a week by a quarter of a million Germans must have been reduced to a dispirited and panicky mob without spirit or semblance of discipline. Acting on this belief Von Kluck marched his right wing across the British front hoping to drive a wedge between the fifth French army and French's remnants. The British aviators speedily discovered and reported this new movement of Von Kluck's and further east the French airmen had intelligence as to the positions and movements of the other German forces on the long line stretching from the lower Marne to the neighbourhood of Verdun.

General Joffre decided that the moment had arrived to abandon the defensive and attack the invaders. The plan as explained to Sir John French was that the sixth French army should move from Paris and be thrown against the German right while Sir John French with the British should attack in front. At the same time the forward movement against the Germans would be continued eastwards by the four French armies holding the line between the British right and the barrier fortresses at Verdun. The long retreat had finally reached its end, the moment for the Allies to strike back had arrived. The battle of the Marne fought on a front of more than one hundred miles began a new phase in the drama of war.

For the Germans the need was an immediate and crushing victory. Though the Russian invasions had been stopped the eastern frontier was likely to soon require further re-enforcements, while the army of the west would never be stronger than it was at the moment. It was no longer possible to attempt to envelop the French by a sweeping movement around the Paris defences, since this would thin out the line to an impossible extent. The obvious procedure would be to pierce the allied line, split it in two, and roll up each half. To ensure this desirable end it had been decided that Von Kluck would strike at the left of the French fifth army disregarding the British while the armies of Saxony, Wurtemburg and the Crown Prince should attack the wearied troops of Langley and Ruffey.

The battle began at dawn on Sunday, September 6th. General Joffre on that morning issued the following order to his men, "At the moment when a battle on which the welfare of the country depends is about to begin I feel it my duty to remind you that it is no longer the time to look behind. We have but one business on hand—to attack and repel the enemy. An army which can no longer advance will at all costs hold the ground it has won and allow itself to be slain where it stands rather than give way. This is no time for faltering and it will not be suffered."

To most of the German armies the first day of fighting may have seemed to be one of reasonable success. Von Kluck, however, with the sudden appearance of the sixth French army which, as if by magic, had been flung out of Paris in taxicabs and motors of every description, and with the despised British armies playing havoc with his right flank, began to realize his situation. The British artillery fire aided by the admirable work of our airmen was deadly and whole German batteries were smashed to pieces. Von Kluck's corps was caught in a trap, he was compelled to fall back, and on the morning of the 8th his army was in full retreat. On the same evening General Foch, the brilliant strategist and writer of military classics, who was later to become generalissimo of the allied forces, succeeded in driving a wedge between the armies of Von Buelow and Von Hausen.

THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE

On Wednesday, September 9th, a day of high winds and drenching rains, the British on their front were victorious and drove Von Kluck's army across the Marne, the battle developing into a gigantic man-hunt. At the same time D'Esperey drove back the Germans and further south two of Von Buelow's corps were driven through the marshes of St. Gond with a loss of many prisoners and forty guns, while Foch had driven a wedge between the armies of Von Buelow and Von Hausen. The rest of the French line held or was improved in position.

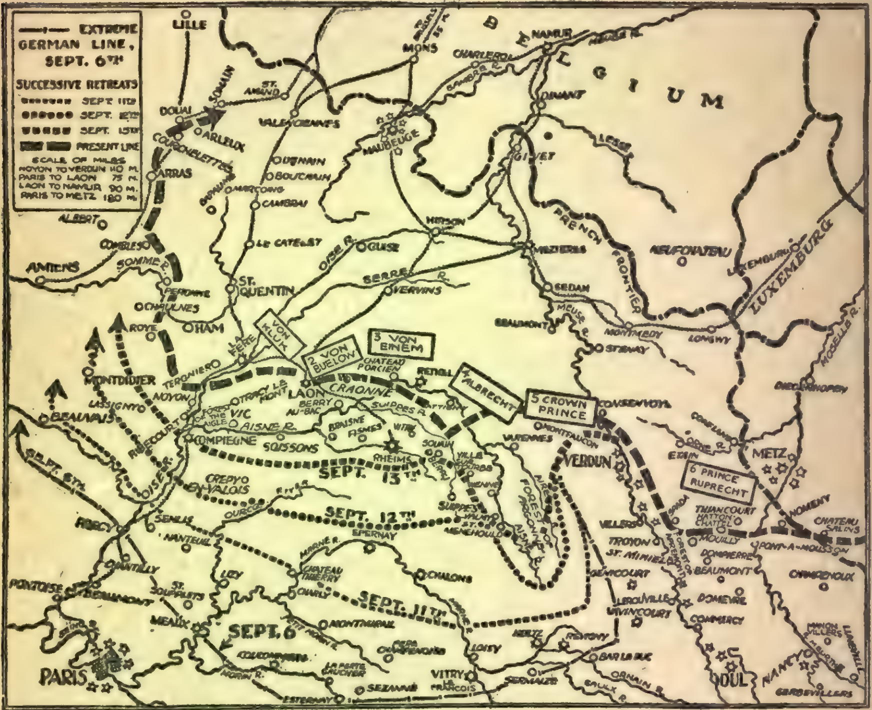
On Thursday, September 10th, the battle of the Marne had been won by the Allies and the engagement became a drive. The German retreat was superbly managed, it was not a rout.

By Saturday, September 12th, the Germans had occupied a line of positions on the Aisne and Suippes rivers. This line, previously prepared by German sappers left behind in case of an emergency, constitutes one of the strongest natural defences in Europe.

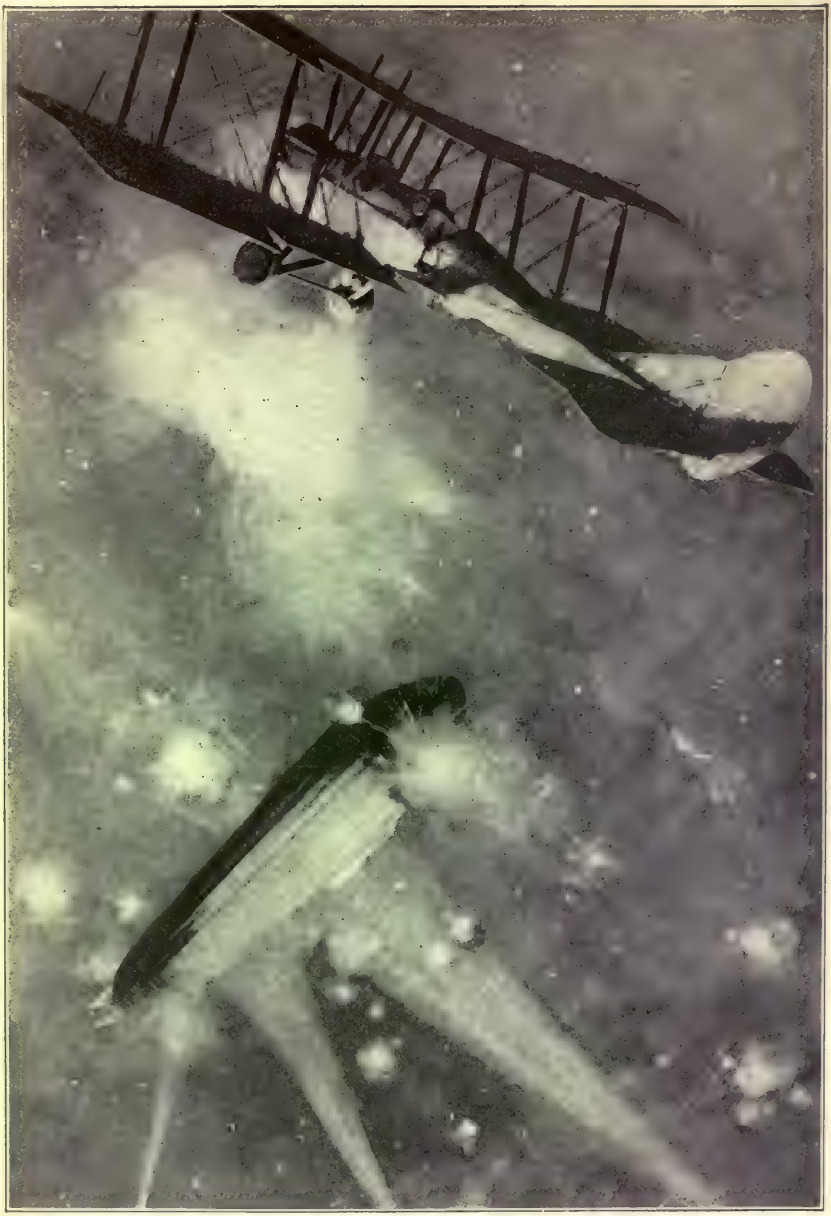
The battle of the Marne, consisting of a series of separate engagements, was an indisputable victory for the Allies, won by hard fighting and superior generalship. The Germans failed firstly, because Von Kluck had arrogantly exposed his right and secondly, because of the heavy defeat inflicted by Foch on the enemy right centre. Great credit was due also to Langley and Sarrail who had to meet and repel the most violent part of the German offensive.

The great German strategy had failed, henceforth the Germans were to be on the defensive and forced to accept a war of entanglements,—a type of warfare they hated.

With the retirement of the Germans the allied soldiers, particularly the British, realized for the first time the horrors of war in a civilized country and the ruthlessness of German methods. In the retreat from Mons they had fallen back through a friendly country not yet devastated by the enemy. As they marched north again they entered a countryside ravaged and dishonoured. Chateaux and farmhouses were burnt, villages smashed beyond recognition, farms and gardens laid waste, everywhere a brutal and senseless devastation. Tales of outrages on civilized population made the British realize that they were pitted against no ordinary foe, but something which seemed to be the enemy of all mankind and of civilization itself.


EXTREME GERMAN LINE, SEPT. 6TH
SUCCESSIVE RETREATS
SEPT. 11TH
SEPT. 12TH
SEPT. 13TH
PRESENT LINE
SCALE OF MILES
NOYON TO VERDUN 110 M.
PARIS TO LAON 75 M.
LAON TO NAMUR 90 M.
PARIS TO METZ 180 M.
BELGIUM
LILLE
MONS
NAMUR
CHARLEROI
SAMBRE R.
DINANT
GIVET
LESSE
MEUSE R.
DOUAI
SOMAIN
ST. AMAND
VALENCIENNES
MAUBEUGE
ARLEUX
COURCHELETTES
ARRAS
CAMBRAI
BOUCHAIN
LE CATEAU
GUISE
OISE R.
HIRSON
MEZIERES
SEDAN
FRENCH FRONTIER
NEUFCHATEAU
LUXEMBURG
LONGWY
MONTMEDY
STENAY
BEAUMONT
MOSELLE R.
ALBERT
COMBLES
AMIENS
SOMME R.
PERONNE
CHAULNES
ST. QUENTIN
SERRE R.
VERVINS
ROYE
HAM
LA FERE
VON KLUK
2 VON BUELOW
3 VON EINEM
4 ALBRECHT
5 CROWN PRINCE
6 PRINCE RUPRECHT
CHATEAU PORCIEN
RETHEL
MONTDIDIER
TERGNIER
NOYON
LASSIGNY
BEAUVAIS
TRACY LE MONT
LAON
CRAONNE
BERRY AU-BAC
SUIPPES R.
VIC
FOREST OF THE AIGLE
AISNE R.
COMPIEGNE
SOISSONS
BRAISNE
FISMES
RHEIMS
SOUAIN
SEPT. 13TH
SEPT. 8TH
OISE R.
CREPY EN VALOIS
OURCQ
SEPT. 12TH
SENLIS
NANTEUIL
CREIL
CHANTILLY
PONTOISE
BEAUMONT
ST. SOUPPLETS
LIZY
MARNE R.
CHATEAU THIERRY
CHARLY
EPERNAY
CHALONS
SEPT. 11TH
MEAUX
SEPT. 6
MONTMIRAIL
SEINE R.
PARIS
COULOMMIERS
MORIN R.
LA FERTE GAUCHER
ESTERNAY
SEZANNE
VITRY LE FRANCOIS
LOISY
SERMAIZE
BAR LE DUC
ORNAIN R.
SAULX R.
VILLE SUR TOURBE
STE. MENEHOULD
SUIPPES
FOREST OF ARGONNE
AISNE R.
MONTFAUCON
VARENNES
VERDUN
CONSENVOYE
ETAIN
METZ
VILLERS
TROYON
ST. MIHIEL
FOREST OF APREMONT
THIAUCOURT
HATTON CHATTEL
MOUILLY
PONT-A-MOUSSON
CHATEAU SALINS
NOMENY
DOMPIERRE
BEAUMONT
CHAMBENOUX
DOMEVRE
LEROUVILLE
COMMERCY
TOUL
NANCY
MEURTHE
LUNEVILLE
GERBEVILLERS

Retreat of Germans after First Battle of the Marne



THE FATE OF A ZEPPELIN RAIDER

Picked out by searchlights and bombarded by "Archies" the death blow was administered by a brave British aviator, who set the raider afire with incendiary bullets.

CHAPTER VII

First Canadian Contingent Sails for Europe

The Minister of Militia, General Sir Sam Hughes, was the most-talked-of man in Canada in the latter months of 1914, and his fame soon spread across the water. His great-grandfather, General St. Pierre, had fought beside Napoleon and, with two of his sons, had died at Waterloo. The blood of great soldiers stirred in his veins and manifested itself when a boy.

A one time English master in a Toronto collegiate institute, then a county newspaper editor, elected year after year in a riding which was largely Catholic, "Can't-be-beat Hughes" became the accepted dictum of his county. Personally he was enormously popular and knew not only the name of every voter but the names of the children of every voter in his riding. Moreover he did what he promised so that today there are few ridings as well looked after as Sir Sam's riding of North Victoria.

As a keen military man, Colonel Hughes got into many a battle and had been known on occasion to resort to his fists to obtain a decision.

As the military critic of the opposition in the House he attacked General Hutton, the then supreme military officer in the Dominion. It was thought this was the reason Colonel Hughes was not accepted for service in South Africa when that war broke out. Nothing daunted, with the Premier's leave, he set sail on the South African transport in civilian dress. In South Africa he obtained employment on transport work, became attached to the staff of General Chas. Warren in Bechuanaland and the head of the mounted brigade till the end of that war.

When the Conservatives came into power in 1911, Sir Robert Borden appointed this aggressive soldier Minister of Militia. It was with some misgivings that the party viewed this appointment. Colonel Hughes's past performances, particularly in debate, would lead one to expect trouble. The Prime Minister rightly placed a high value on his potentialities.

Once in power, this strong-willed, self-assertive, self-reliant, egotistic and aggressive man became a prominent figure. Original in ideas he had always been; the new Minister of Militia and Defence proved to be original in policy when he got into office. As an active military officer he pressed and agitated reforms that would make a more efficient militia. His newspaper training and his ability to talk brought his ideas constantly before the people. As a member of the Federal Cabinet he gave his own ideas form and authority.

In the House he was constantly being attacked, and baiting the Minister was a practice not uncommonly attempted, but the Minister stood to his guns and returned as good as he received.

The annual estimates of the Militia Department, which were increasing greatly from year to year under the new Minister, made him the target of many rude gibes. On May 7, 1914, he was attacked by F. W. Pardee, who denounced him as "Absolutely obsessed with militarism." F. B. Carvell thought the Minister had gone "militia mad." Hugh Guthrie exclaimed: "The militia expenditure in Canada today is entirely out of proportion to our needs and our wealth—the time will never come in this country when the expenditure the Minister proposes will be justified. There is no reason for it, there is no emergency in sight and there will be none in our day and generation." R. Lemieux declared the country to be going "military mad" under General Hughes's influence. G. W. Kyte denounced the "extravagance, fuss and feathers" of the department. And so it went on session after session.

Notwithstanding these attacks a great majority in the House of Commons provided the money for a general house-cleaning. And so it came to pass that officials passed out and new men (not always good ones) came in during the period of re-organization. The ability to invariably select good men, either for action or as advisers, was not one of General Hughes's qualities. Many of his subsequent troubles grew out of the fact that he had chosen men because he liked them, because they were plausible, or because they appealed to his egotism. Unfortunately he sometimes accepted their advice and got himself, in consequence, into serious trouble.

As has already been said, when war broke out, General Hughes became the most-talked-of man in Canada. His prophecies had been realized and his policies justified. Even his enemies had to admit that his judgment had proved correct. For the time he was given *carte blanche* and had the confidence of friend and foe alike.

On July 30th, without hesitation or the calling of Parliament, or even a meeting of the Cabinet, General Hughes arrived in Ottawa and held an emergency meeting of the Militia Council. He at once took charge of the military situation with all the self-possession and aggressiveness of his make-up. He organized, worked and talked with equal enthusiasm; he seemed to be everywhere, travelling huge distances at night; alert, fearless of criticism, intensely active, he put into the crowded hours of those early war days an energy that seemed almost superhuman. His frank speeches on the war shocked some, but proved intensely interesting to all. He said things which evoked censure, he did things which evoked general praise. He raised a force of thousands of men in the great cause of liberty, but in so doing he rode pell-mell over people's accepted ideas and practices with an egotism equalled only by that of Emperor Wilhelm. It must have been satisfactory to him to have been able to put into action the opinions and policy which he had urged upon the country in days of peace.

Among other reforms he had driven the wet canteen from every military camp and banished liquor from every officers' mess in Canada, a move which required a deal of firmness and proved successful. The list of good deeds standing to his credit was large. Frankly it may be said that at the time no other military man in Canada engaged in politics could have accomplished so much real work in so short a time with the handicaps which prevailed. The very qualities of pugnacious self-assertion and super-confidence were so startling in the Cabinet that the Militia Department got not only what it wanted but what it needed.

The work of organizing and equipping the Canadians for overseas service was carried on vigorously by the Minister of Militia. Everywhere throughout the country preachers, teachers, university professors and other men of influence appealed to the vast youth of the country to volunteer. The result was that a large number of highly educated men volunteered and became officers and non-commissioned officers of the very best type, such men being particularly valuable because, like the school boys of Eton and other English colleges, they had been trained through athletics to take punishment and use their heads.

Clergymen throughout the country who had been prominent in preaching pacificism, faced about and flung themselves wholeheartedly into the cause, working night and day, at recruiting, for the Red Cross and other patriotic organizations.

While Valcartier was in course of construction the battalions being recruited throughout the country were mobilized in the local camps and began their course of training.

The scenes which took place when these units finally left for the great camp in Quebec were excellent demonstrations of the feeling that had been inspired throughout the country. For example, when the 48th Highlanders of Toronto left the armouries in Toronto for the station, in a drizzling rain, tens of thousands of people lined the streets. By the time the station was reached all semblance of order had gone from the ranks, young women carried the men's rifles, others decorated them with flowers, some clung to their arms, and the sidewalks were masses of cheering humanity. Friends had come to Toronto from all over the Province to see the regiment leave for the front and probably 100,000 people had gathered to see the battalion depart. There were no tears but much cheerfulness and goodwill in this earnest and heartfelt send-off. It was typical of what was taking place from one end of Canada to the other.

The site for the concentration camp had been chosen at Valcartier, a place nestling amongst the blue Laurentian Hills about sixteen miles from Quebec, and convenient to that port of embarkation. Within four days 6,000 men had arrived at Valcartier; in another week there were 25,000 men. From centres all over Canada, troop trains, each carrying hundreds of embryo soldiers, sped towards Valcartier and deposited their burdens on the twenty-five miles of sidings that had sprung up as though by magic.

The rapid evolution of that wild and wooded valley of the Valcartier River as I saw it for the first time on August 12th into a model military camp was a great tribute to the engineering skill and energy of civilians who had never done the like before. One day an army of woodmen was seen felling trees, the next day the stumps of those trees were torn out and the hollows filled, on the third day long rows of tents in regular camp formation covered the ground and the fourth day they were occupied by civilian soldiers concentrated upon learning the rudiments of the art and science of war.

VALCARTIER CAMP

Streets were laid out; miles of water pipes, sunk in machine-made ditches, were connected for taps and shower baths; a system of electric lighting was installed; three miles of rifle butts were completed and in two weeks the camp was practically finished. It was the finest camp that the first Canadian division was ever destined to see. The building of Valcartier was typical of the driving power, vision and genius of the Minister of Militia, General Hughes.

Of the 33,000 men assembled at Valcartier the great majority were civilians without any previous training in warfare. About 7,000 Canadians had taken part in South Africa fifteen years before and some of these, together with a few ex-regulars, who had seen active service, were formed into the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry. Otherwise, with the exception of the 3,000 regulars that formed the standing army in Canada, the men and most of the officers were amateurs.

The camp was under the command of Colonel Victor Williams. No liquor was allowed in the camp, and there was very little difficulty with the men.

Many who had never served in the militia clamoured for commissions, and the Minister of Militia had a good deal of difficult work in the selection of his officers. Notwithstanding, the troops worked hard day by day, and it was astonishing how quickly they learned the rudiments of the game and presented at least a smart appearance when drilling or in manœuvres.

It was generally thought that if a man could shoot and had a few weeks' training, he was ready to take his place in the front line. It was not realized that an army composed of such badly trained men would be little better than a mob, because they would not possess the first essential—discipline.

It was a feat that Canadian people could be proud of, that in the great crisis they were able to gather together this force so quickly. It was also a matter of congratulation that without delay great industries were turned over to the manufacture of all necessary army equipment. Factories all over the country immediately began turning out vast quantities of khaki cloth, uniforms, boots, ammunition, harness, wagons and the thousand and one articles necessary for an army.

Before the end of September, 1914, the Canadian Expeditionary Force had been roughly hewn into shape, battalions had been regrouped and remodelled, officers retransferred and in many cases weeded out, intensive training carried on and all the necessary equipment assembled.

Towards the end of September orders came to move, and, one by one, the various battalions and units comprising the contingent left for Quebec by road and by train.

Quebec City was bustling with life and activity. The city was full of friends who had come to bid their soldiers farewell. Through the crooked streets the tramp of Canadian battalions and the rumbling of batteries and guns was heard as they made their way to the ships on the riverside. The slumbers of a hundred years' peace had been once more broken; the empire was again threatened and Canada was at war.

At night from the Château Frontenac filled with gay soldiers and smiling relatives we could see the moving lights of the St. Lawrence River far below; the flashes of a powerful searchlight swept the water, lighting up the opposite shores and playing upon the craft anchored or moored to the wharves. It was a reminder of the possibility that Quebec might be attacked from the sea and was the first intimation that there was any possibility of danger in Canada.

One by one, as the great liners were loaded with troops and equipment, they slipped away from the Quebec wharves and quietly passed down the great St. Lawrence to the open sea.

Much to the surprise of everybody they found themselves gathering in Gaspé harbour in Quebec, and then only was it learned that sealed orders had been given to rendezvous there.

Riding in that peaceful harbor were four small gunboats and the thirty-three transports which were to carry the contingent overseas. At three of the clock on October 3, 1914, the small cruisers, the *Diana,* the *Eclipse,* the *Talbot* and *Charybdis* put to sea, the *Talbot* acting as rearguard while the transports formed three lines following the other three cruisers. The speed, set by the slowest craft, the *Monmouth*, was ten knots an hour and each ship was separated from the one in front by four cable-lengths. In case the convoy was scattered by fog, storm or other cause, a rendezvous was arranged for each day.

THE FLEET LEAVING GASPÉ BASIN

Slowly Gaspé was left behind; the shores of Quebec, with their white cottages, their fishing boats and the churches with their gilded spires, receded, and the Canadian armada passed on into the Atlantic.

On each transport as it sailed away from Quebec was read a message from Field Marshal, H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught:

> On the eve of your departure from Canada I wish to congratulate you on having the privilege of taking part, with the other forces of the Crown, in fighting for the honour of the King and Empire. You have nobly responded to the call of duty, and Canada will know how to appreciate the patriotic spirit that animates you. I have complete confidence that you will do your duty, and that Canada will have every reason to be proud of you. You leave these shores with the knowledge that all Canadian hearts beat for you, and that our prayers and best wishes will ever attend you. May God bless you and bring you back victorious.

It was the greatest fleet of transports that had ever been gathered together in the history of the world. The fleet consisted of thirty-two vessels carrying 33,000 men, 7,000 horses and all the motors, wagons and equipment necessary to place one complete infantry division and a cavalry brigade in the field and supply the necessary reserves. At night the convoy steamed along like a fleet of phantom ships, all the windows and portholes carefully screened so that not a single ray of light was visible to reveal the location of the vessels.

Off Newfoundland the three lines of ships ploughing along about a mile and a half apart picked up the H. M. S. *Glory*, which took up her position about ten miles to the right. There also the Newfoundland contingent, in the ship *Florizel*, joined the convoy.

On the 10th the *Princess Royal*, one of the super-dreadnoughts with a speed of thirty-four knots, and carrying eight

13½-inch guns, took up her position on the left, and the next day another dreadnought, H. M. S. *Majestic*, quietly took her place ahead of the convoy.

The weather was remarkably fine and on the 14th October England was sighted near Land's End.

Nothing had been seen of any of the German pirates and it was a wonderful tribute to the power of the British navy that the fleet had crossed the ocean without hindrance.

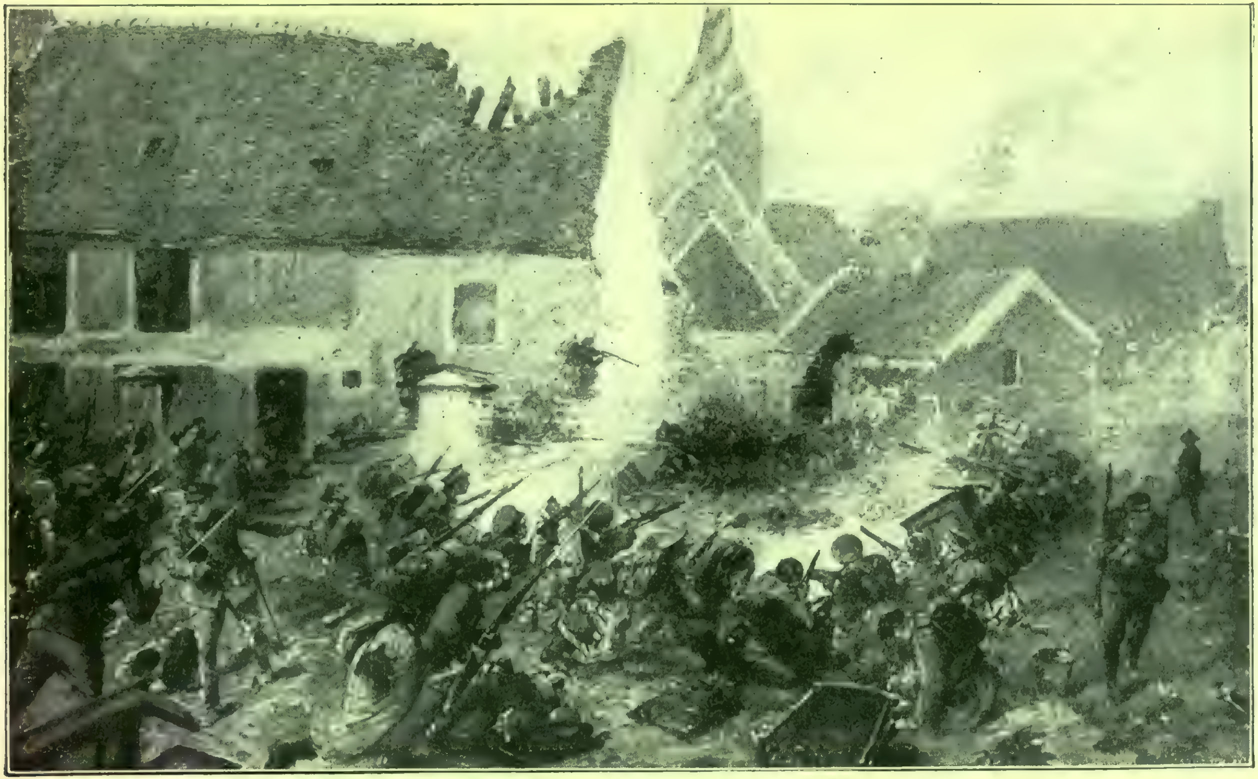
The approach to Plymouth was wonderfully pleasant to the men who had been two weeks on board ship endeavouring to fill in the time by drill, athletic contests and games. The trees were in full foliage, shades of brown and olive-green predominating, making a most restful change from the monotony of the sea.

THE FLEET ENTERING PLYMOUTH HARBOUR

Destroyers and torpedo-boats speeded around us in large numbers and escorted the vessels, while, as the breakwater was approached, a large number of paddle-wheel tugs came out and piloted the vessels safely into perhaps the most noted harbour in the world. It was from this port that Drake, Hawkins and Cook left on their forays and expeditions which brought England such notoriety and gave her such a reputation.

All along the banks dense crowds of people poured forth and cheered the Canadian transports, while the training ships were manned with sailors and cadets. All the warships under construction, the training ships, the docks and other points of vantage were thronged with crowds of cheering people, civilians, soldiers and sailors. As the vessels were slowly piloted up the Channel, the welcome increased in intensity until it seemed as if everybody had gone mad.

It was a remarkable and never-to-be-forgotten reception. This extraordinary ovation by the sober English people meant more than a welcome to the Canadians from overseas. Back of the demonstration was the conviction that blood had proved thicker than water, that the apparently flimsy ties that bound the colony to the empire were bonds of steel. It was a proof that the German conviction that the British Colonies would fall away and the British Empire disintegrate upon the outbreak of a great war had proved false.



THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE MARNE

When the tide of victory turned toward the Allies, hand-to-hand fighting took place in nearly every village as the enemy were driven back. This picture shows a mixed force of British and Turcos driving the boches out of a village in Brie.

Incidentally it was a great demonstration that the much vaunted German navy had been swept from the seas and rendered impotent by the might of Britain's fleet.

That night the vessels were brilliantly illuminated, bands played, many danced and all were happy to be thus far on their journey to the real adventure.

To the Dominion Government on October 16th, Winston Churchill, as First Lord of the Admiralty, sent the following despatch:

> Canada sends her aid at a timely moment. The conflict moves forward to its terrible climax and fiercer struggles lie before us than any which have yet been fought.

To General Alderson, in charge of the disembarkation at Plymouth, came a telegram from Field Marshal Lord Kitchener:

> Will you please convey my cordial greetings to the splendid contingent from Canada which has just reached these shores to take their share in the cause of the Mother Country. I am confident that they will play their part with gallantry, and show by their soldier-like bearing that they worthily represent the great Dominion from which they come. They may always be sure that I will do my best to forward their interests.

On the arrival of the fleet at Plymouth, the following messages were received:

Fulham Palace: "All England welcomes with pride and gratitude Canadians' help," wrote the Bishop of London.

Eastbourne: "I rejoice with every Briton at the coming of such stout comrades." Conan Doyle.

"Liverpool citizens congratulate the Canadians on the splendid contingent, and gratefully thank them for the substantial help given." Lord Mayor, Liverpool.

The press in England recognized the profound significance of the Canadians' arrival in its imperial aspects.

"They are the first of the empire forces to reach England," the *Morning Post* said. "They will soon be of very great value in the fighting line, . . But they are also of great value to the empire because they are the symbol of its unity and potential strength."

The *Times* declared this to be the first answer given in Europe to the Germans' egregious delusion that the Dominions would

VERSITY OF ST. MICHA LIBRARY

not rally to England in this war. The troops from Canada and other Dominions were as fine material as any soldier in the world could wish to lead. "They come of the right breed," it said. "If they didn't they would not have flocked of their own free will to the flag as they have done and as they are still doing with unabated ardor. . . We welcome their assistance with gratitude and pride. We welcome it for the addition it brings to our numbers in the field, and for the exceptionally fine quality of troops it gives us, . . but far more for the incalculable moral support which it brings us in the great struggle for principles that conflict and cannot be reconciled."

The *Daily News* said their mere presence there was inspiration and assurance in itself that however long it might last there could be but one end to this struggle.

The *Western Morning News* of Plymouth editorially voiced England's first welcome thus:

> To Canada belongs the immortal distinction of sending the first contingent of Dominion troops to war. Canada has always been foremost in great imperial movements, and in advance of the empire's honor. Her troops will be first in the field. We in the west had yesterday the gratification of seeing these stately ships steam into the harbor whence Gilbert set forth to discover Newfoundland, and we will greet them with greater warmth than a brother if, and when, Plymouth is officially allowed to receive them.
>
> Canada gives us the flower of her manhood. . . They have crossed the ocean to fight for the empire, and if need be to die for the empire. As the vanguard of what promises to be a considerable army from our daughter state, which will grow in volume as the war progresses, the Canadian troops bear witness to the solidarity of the British people within the dominions of the King and bring proud answer to the arrant Germans who fancied that the British Empire was tumbling to pieces. Britain has received from Canada another sample of the "contemptible little army." These men, sons of men of Canada, who by their strong arms and alert brains have built up a sister state which promises to be the most highly developed and most prosperous country in the world, are hardy and soldierly individuals, who by nature and training are well equipped for the fray into which they are eager to plunge. The Canadian contingent will in battle prove themselves worthy of the traditions of their race and the Dominion. May the Maple Leaf distinguish itself in many battles.

On October 27th *Le Temps* of Paris referred to the arrival in England of the Canadian troops as follows:

> Today what a remarkable development in history. The Indian troops are in France, the Canadians are coming. They will come under the British flag, and that will not cause any bitterness amongst us. For they come to defend France as well as England. The blood of English-Canadians will flow for France; French-Canadians will shed blood for England. And among those who fall, none will know whether he dies for the Motherland of yesterday or that of today, for the two former rivals are closely united to protect the liberty of the world. There is, perhaps, no better lesson, no brighter chapter in the history of civilized peoples than this final reconciliation after ancient wars. It was prepared by the equal and parallel development of two liberal civilizations.

When the first Canadian soldiers reached England they were so new that men and officers only recognized the fact that they belonged to the same battalion by the numbers on their shoulder straps. The Canadian army was as cosmopolitan as Canada itself for it was composed of elements springing from many nations, yet in the first Canadian contingent about one-half were British born and between one-third and one-half were Canadian born of British parentage, with probably less than five per cent of French-Canadians, Indians, and those of foreign extraction. Later the proportion of Canadian-born volunteers became greater.

CHAPTER VIII

Achievements of Russia and Japan

On August 25th when the British forces in France were struggling out of the trap, the Russians had advanced far into East Prussia. For strategical reasons it was necessary for the Germans to reconquer the country and, besides, it was the home of the beloved junkers of the Emperor, who considered the invasion of this Province a personal insult.

General Von Hindenburg, then retired, had made the defence of East Prussia his sole hobby; he had haunted the wilderness and marshes on foot and in motor car, had investigated the marshes and shallow lakes and had got to know the country like a book. He had even experimented with driving heavy guns through certain of the shallow lakes which had hard gravel bottoms, so that, should the opportunity arise, his detailed knowledge of the country would prove most valuable.

At one time a business syndicate devised a reclamation scheme which would drain these lakes and swamps and convert them into rich agricultural districts. Von Hindenburg appealed to the Emperor, claiming that this eastern wilderness was worth to Germany many army corps and a dozen fortresses. His argument prevailed and the scheme was not gone on with.

At the outbreak of war Von Hindenburg, a man of rugged strength of frame and character, was appointed to the East Prussian command. His army consisted at the time of probably 150,000 men. Behind him he had an admirable system of strategic railways which enabled him to bring up reserves with a speed impossible to the Russians.

General Rennenkampf advanced along the railway with the army of the Niemen towards Koenigsberg. His force was dangerously divided; General Samsonov had advanced on a wide front and pressed through the western lake region to seize the crossings of the Vistula. His force of 200,000 men outnumbered Von Hindenburg's but he was compelled to move on a broad front through the swampy region and his columns were temporarily divided from each other. The Russian Intelligence Department proved to be very defective and information obtained from spies and aviators was quite misleading.

On August 26th Samsonov found himself confronted with the main masses of Von Hindenburg's army. Hindenburg's position had been taken with unerring skill, his front line was barred by lakes and swamps and he had formed a line of improvised fortifications. Splendid railway communications behind his front enabled him to re-enforce any wing at pleasure.

The Russians attacked for several days with but little result and all their attempts to break the German line failed.

Hindenburg, hurrying tens of thousands of men northeast, threw them against the Russian flank and Samsonov was driven back into an almost roadless country, for the Germans had captured his main highways.

Trapped in the treacherous swamps and wide muddy lakes the Russian guns and horses sunk in the bogs while whole regiments were driven into the lakes and drowned in the water or bottomless mud. Samsonov's army had been five corps strong at the beginning of the fight; one corps only, and a portion of another, succeeded in making their way eastward toward the frontier. The Germans took nearly 90,000 prisoners and hundreds of guns in this battle of Tannenberg, which was a complete and decisive victory.

Von Hindenburg became the idol of the German people. With a smaller force he had outmanœuvred and enveloped a larger and his hobby of a lifetime had been vindicated.

The effect of Tannenberg had an immense influence on the war, Germany had anticipated great successes on the western front but had little faith that much would be done in the east. On the very day that news of the advance of the Germans to the gates of Paris arrived in Berlin, the report that Von Hindenburg had destroyed a Russian army and cleared East Prussia of the invaders arrived. Germany was intoxicated. Von Hindenburg was hailed as the greatest soldier of the day. The Emperor raised him to the rank of Field Marshal and an immediate advance on Warsaw was demanded by Berlin.

At this point it may be well to review shortly Russia's strategic aims. The original plan of Russia probably involved a defensive stand on the lines of the middle Vistula, the Narev and the Niemen. She knew where her strength lay and it was obvious wisdom to let the enemy wear itself out on her vast distances, poor communications and impossible country. Under necessity of easing the position of the Allies in the west, General Rennenkampf undertook a campaign into East Prussia, with what fortune we have seen.

In mid September Von Hindenburg was busy in the East Prussian campaign, chiefly with Rennenkampf, while the Russian left wing was moving swiftly towards Cracow. The Russian aim was to lure Von Hindenburg into an impossible conflict on the Niemen, while the left wing gave the fleeing Austrians no opportunity to rally.

Von Hindenburg was trapped but saved himself before he had suffered a crushing defeat.

When Von Hindenburg reached the Niemen River the Russian artillery hidden on the low eastern shores blew his bridges to pieces. After several attempts he found the crossing impossible and, his communications not allowing of a rapid bringing up of reserves, he gave the order to retreat, which was carried out with all the old skill of the Field Marshal.

The Russians played the traditional Russian game and harassed the retreating foe whom the wilderness had betrayed. At one time it seemed as if Von Hindenburg's forces would be cut off. There was a fierce rearguard action in the woods for two days in which the Germans lost heavily in guns and prisoners, but they escaped a crushing defeat by the slenderest margin.

On the 9th of October a series of engagements, which the Russians called the battle of the Augustovo, was over, and the Germans had lost 60,000 men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

The two chief fortresses of Central Galicia are Jaroslav and Przemysl, both on the River San, and both commanding important railway routes to the west. Austria counted on Jaroslav making a stout resistance, but something went wrong and in three days it fell before the Russian attacks.

THE STRATEGIC CITY OF CRACOW

Przemysl, with a garrison of 30,000 men, resisted for a much longer time. The Grand Duke Nicholas, knowing what a Russian winter meant for armies in the field, was eager to strike a great blow before it set in, and his armies swept on towards Cracow. This city is strategically the most important point in Eastern Europe. It stands on the edge of the Carpathians on the Vistula River, and is flanked by hills on the north and south. It was well protected by trenches and light railways with which to carry artillery, had a clear fire zone with a radius of eight miles and was manned with a garrison of 100,000 men.

Cracow is the gateway both to Vienna and Berlin and the key to Germany. Forty miles west of Cracow is the Silesian frontier. Silesia was the home of the great German territorial magnates, contained one of their chief coal and iron fields, and was one of the largest manufacturing areas of the German Empire. It yielded more than one-quarter of the German coal produced; it had the richest zinc deposits in the world and it had enormous chemical and textile factories. Consequently the mere threat of an invasion in such a closely settled, highly organized land would be felt acutely, for on the products of Silesia, scarcely less than on the products of Essen, did the life of her soldiers and civilians depend. The capture of Cracow, therefore, involved an immediate blow at the heart of Germany through one of her chief industrial centres. That is why so much importance was rightly attached to the Russian movement.

There were two other objects besides the strategic purpose in the Russian invasion of Galicia. Germany had an elaborate system of motor transport and petrol, therefore, was one of her chief munitions of war. Her immense stocks were rapidly failing, her supply from America and Russia had been cut off and her only available source was the Galician supply. It is interesting to note that the petroleum fields of Austria since 1878 have been largely developed under the superintendence of Canadian engineers. As soon as Russia, therefore, could control the Carpathian foothills she would enter into possession of the oil wells, and by cutting off Germany's petrol supply deal her a vital blow.

Hungary also was the chief source of supply of horses for the German army and a successful invasion would cut off another source of military supplies.

The Austrian commands had been recently overhauled and all the Austrian forces placed under Von Hindenburg. German staff officers were assigned to the Austrian armies. Under German supervision the defences at Cracow were strengthened and the

German right army advanced from the Posen frontier towards the northern bank of the Vistula, a movement designed to threaten the right of any Russian advance into Galicia. The German centre also moved towards Lodz and altogether it was sufficient to convince the Grand Duke Nicholas and his staff that the long-awaited German offensive in Poland would soon occur in that area. Germany did not intend to await the enemy on a line of frontier entrenchments but to fight him one hundred miles inside his border.

At this time certain defects in the provision of equipment for the Russian army became apparent. It was realized that Russia could not hope before Christmas to put the four millions into the field, which had been estimated, in the west; that, in fact, she would be fortunate if she could raise two millions.

Von Hindenburg, seeing that a stalemate had been reached in East Prussia which might continue throughout the winter, and realizing that no number of German successes would affect the critical Galician position, resolved to stake everything on a blow at the enemy's centre. One vulnerable point stood out in Western Russia in the city of Warsaw. This city was on the wrong side of the Vistula, was the centre of the scanty railway communications of Poland, and was the capital of the Russian province. It had a population of three-quarters of a million of mixed races, the like of which could not be found in Europe. If captured, it would prove excellent winter quarters from which to push far into the enemy's territory in the spring.

Hindenburg had accumulated at this time at least three-quarters of a million men,and the Austrian army, with its re-enforcements must have reached a million.

The German scheme was a general concentration along the middle Vistula, to cut the Kiev railway at Lublin and drive the Grand Duke Nicholas along the northern railways towards Petrograd. The Grand Duke, divining his intentions, played for safety in the traditional Russian style.

The Russian generalissimo left nothing to chance and he succeeded in completely misleading his adversary. The Germans advanced deliberately, making excellent roads as they went, and levelling great stretches of forest to make corduroy paths over the marshes for transport and artillery. They even altered the gauge of the Lodz-Warsaw railway, and, as Von Hindenburg advanced,

Canadian War Records. *Copyright Reserved.*

CANADIANS FIX BAYONETS IN READINESS FOR A CHARGE ON THE SOMME

The breathless nerve-racking moment before the great adventure of going over the top in a glorious charge against the enemy.

his supplies were brought up by motor transport from his own railheads.

The Grand Duke was prepared for Hindenburg on a line of entrenchments well to the west of Warsaw. He had no intention of allowing the heavy Skoda howitzers to be brought within reach of the Capital.

The fight for Warsaw began on August 18th and failed. By the beginning of November the long German front had been broken into two pieces which fled southwest and westward. As Von Hindenburg retreated he left a desert behind him; the roads laboriously made a few weeks before and the railways were mined. Telegraph wires were cut, posts broken and everything possible destroyed. Von Hindenburg was maturing a new scheme which depended upon a devastated Poland, and all of it except the northern portion was left a wilderness. His assault on Warsaw had failed decisively and his retreat had been attended with heavy losses.

The lure of Cracow to the Russians was naturally great. The Russian general staff were well aware of the dangers of campaigning in Poland though they had not divined all that was in Von Hindenburg's mind. They realized that, if Cracow was to be won by a Galician advance, an army must move also through Poland on its right flank. They hoped to keep Von Hindenburg busy defending the Posen frontier while one of their generals dealt with the great fortress. The Russian infantry moved forward slowly along the damaged Russian roads. The Grand Duke did not discover the fact that the German commander had left the Northern Polish communications in good shape.

Von Hindenburg had meanwhile been strongly re-enforced, and probably now had no less than 800,000 men. His advance against the Grand Duke began on a front of forty miles between the Warta and the River Vistula. The objective was once again to be Warsaw, and was to be secured by a sudden blow at the right of the Russian centre, it being argued that with broken railways and ruined roads that centre could neither be quickly re-enforced or easily retire.

The Russian position was a bad one. They were holding a line of nearly a thousand miles with forces of not more than two millions and their line presented a dozen points of weakness. It is doubtful whether the Russian right centre had more than 200,000 men. The fights in the second attack upon Warsaw were the last, for a considerable time, of the genuine battles of manœuvre.

In a season of heavy mists Von Hindenburg launched his attack and the much inferior Russian army slowly gave way. Realizing that speed was the essence of his plan, Von Hindenburg pressed on and, under Von Mackensen, drove the Russians before him until their front split in two. It was a perilous moment, but at the supreme crisis the Russians were re-enforced by troops from Siberia, who attacked in the centre, cut off the apex of the German wedge and re-established the Russian line. The result was that in the German wedge, consisting of two army corps, there were about 60,000 Germans remaining in a kind of sack bulging deep into the Russian line. Desperate efforts were made by the Russians to close in the mouth of the sack and entrap the Germans, but the effort failed and Von Mackensen succeeded in broadening the mouth of the pocket by pushing back the flanking Russians.

In the frantic struggle, which lasted from the 24th to the 26th, the Germans lost terribly, many companies being reduced to a fifth of their strength, and others so broken that they had to leave the fighting line.

The German army, failing in the centre, then attempted an enveloping movement which really proved a failure, though large numbers of Russian prisoners and many guns fell into the hands of the enemy.

The Russians entrenched themselves on a front against which the enemy's assaults broke in vain. The situation paralleled that on the western front and the German force expended itself in vain against the entrenched positions of our Allies. The Germans attacked with great vigor, for Von Hindenburg desired the Polish Capital as a Christmas present for his Emperor, but no valour on earth could carry that line. Warsaw was only thirty-five miles off and her citizens, within sound of the guns, slept peacefully as if they had been a thousand miles away. By Christmas the German attack had died away and the winter stalemate on the east had arrived as it had six weeks earlier on the western front.

The Russian achievement had been most remarkable. The outbreak of hostilities had found her with her army re-organization incomplete and with a serious shortage of equipment. She had to bring her men by slender railway communications thousands of miles, and she was ready to strike two weeks before Germany anticipated she could. Her invasion of East Prussia did much to relieve the strain in the west, but she paid heavily for it. After the battle of Tannenberg she made no mistakes. Von Hindenburg had been enticed to the Niemen and then driven back to disaster at Augustova, while in Galicia, Lemberg and all eastern Galicia were won and in two mighty battles three Austrian armies had been heavily beaten. The Russian generals had shown that rarest of combinations—omnipresent sense of a great strategic objective and a power of patiently biding their time and relinquishing territory or cities when prudence demanded it.

The Grand Duke Nicholas proved that he possessed that highest of military gifts, the power of renunciation, the cutting of losses and the sacrificing of the less to the more essential.

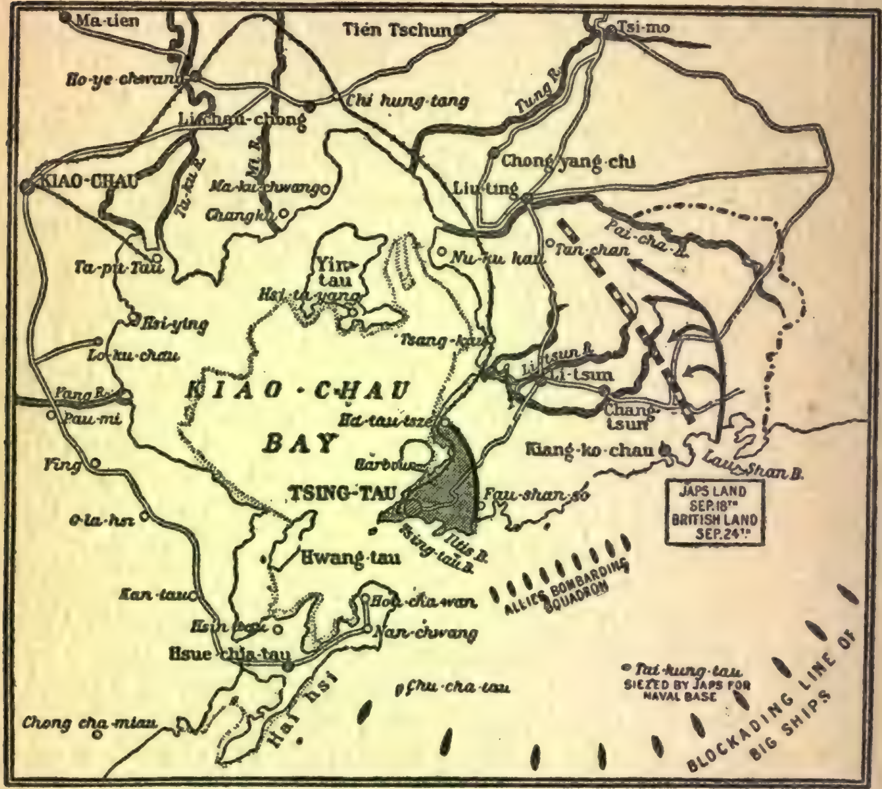
JAPAN'S EFFORT IN THE WAR

Japan was bound by treaty with Great Britain to come to her aid in case of war. On August 4th Japan received a note from Great Britain requesting her to safeguard British shipping in eastern waters. Since Germany was in occupation of the Chinese Province of Tsing-Tau it was agreed between the two allied powers that Japan should remove this German menace by seizing the Chinese Province for the time being, returning it to China after the war.

Accordingly, on August 15th, Japan demanded of Germany that she disarm her warships and hand over the Province of Tsing-Tau. No reply having been received before the ultimatum expired, Japan declared war on Germany.

On August 27th the Japanese seized some of the small armaments at the mouth of the Kiao-Chow harbour and swept up the surrounding mines. On September 2d they landed troops at the base of the peninsula at the end of which Tsing-Tau was situated, and cut off that fortress from the mainland.

On November 6th, after a week of bombardment, the prize German colony of the Pacific hoisted the white flag and capitulated, much to the chagrin of Germany. Japan in this affair had only 236 men killed and lost a small third-class cruiser. Thereafter Japan's part consisted in patrolling the Pacific, the China Sea and Indian Ocean, thereby allowing British warships to be drawn closer to home waters. Later on she also sent a destroyer squadron to assist the Allies in the Mediterranean. In supplying Russia with huge quantities of guns, ammunition, stores, hospital and Red Cross supplies, Japan was of incalculable assistance in making it possible for the Russian armies to carry on the war against tremendous odds, particularly in the first year. By this action they greatly helped to ease the attacks on the Western Russian front and contributed materially to the ultimate fall of the Central Powers.


Ma-tien
Tien Tschun
Tsi-mo
Ho-ye-chwan
Chi hung tang
Tung R.
Li-chau-chong
Chong yang chi
KIAO-CHAU
Ta-ku R.
Mi R.
Ma-ku-chwang
Changkou
Liu-ting
Pai-cha R.
Tan-chan
Nu-ku hau
Ta-pu-Tau
Yin-tau
Hsi-ta-yang
Hsi-ying
Tsang-kau
Lo-ku-chau
Li-tsun R.
Li-tsum
KIAO-CHAU BAY
Yang R.
Pau-mi
Ha-tau-tsze
Chang-tsun
Kiang-ko-chau
Lau-Shan B.
Ying
TSING-TAU
Fau-shan-so
JAPS LAND SEP. 18TH BRITISH LAND SEP. 24TH
O-la-hsi
Iltis B.
Tsing-tau B.
Hwang-tau
ALLIES BOMBARDING SQUADRON
Kan-tau
Hou-cha-wan
Nan-chwang
Hsue-chia-tau
Tai-kung-tau SEIZED BY JAPS FOR NAVAL BASE
Chu-cha-tau
Hai hsi
BLOCKADING LINE OF BIG SHIPS
Chong cha-miau

Germany's Great Port in China, Captured by the Allies

During the last year of the war Japanese, British and American troops co-operated in protecting vast stores of ammunition from being seized by the Russian Bolsheviki and helped to preserve order in Siberia.

CHAPTER IX

The Canadians on Salisbury Plain

On the 11th October the Canadians landed at Plymouth. A few days later the whole of the 33,000 men were more or less settled on Salisbury Plain. The Canadian force was divided into four distinct camps, miles apart. One infantry brigade and the headquarters staff were stationed at Bustard camp, another section was camped two miles away at West Down South, a third established itself at West Down North, still further away, and the fourth at Pond Farm about five miles from Bustard. Water supplies and arrangements for administration made these divisions necessary.

The Plains of Salisbury are ideal for summer military camps. They are rolling prairie-like lands stretching for miles and broken only by occasional farmhouses or plantations of trees called spinneys. A thin layer of earth and turf covers the chalk which is hundreds of feet in depth; at any point a blow with a pick will uncover the white chalk filled with black flints. The hills forming the borders of Salisbury Plains rise sharply from the surface of Wiltshire, and Salisbury Plain itself may be easily distinguished miles away by the white water-worn rifts in its hillsides.

The Canadians were soon settled on this fine camping ground, tents were pitched, canteens opened, work begun and the Canadian contingent settled down perhaps somewhat impatiently to the further training necessary before they crossed the Channel to Flanders.

On November 4th, the King and Queen Mary, accompanied by a large staff and by F. M. Lord Kitchener, F. M. Lord Roberts, Hon. H. C. Perley, Sir Richard McBride and others visited the camp. The royal party was met by General Alderson and his staff and at Bustard by Colonel Mercer who was in charge of that camp. The King inspected the troops with interest and on the following day His Majesty issued this address:—

> It gives me great pleasure to take this opportunity of welcoming to the Mother Country such a fine contingent of troops from the Dominion

of Canada. Their prompt rally to the empire's call is of inestimable value both to the fighting strength of my army and in the evidence which it gives of the solidarity of the empire. The general appearance and physical standard of the different units are highly creditable. I am glad to hear of the serious and earnest spirit which pervades all ranks, for it is only by careful training and leading on the part of the officers and by efficiency, strict discipline and co-operation on the part of all that the demands of modern war can be met. I shall follow with interest the progress and work of my Canadians.

On November 9th 350 Canadians were invited to share in the Lord Mayor's historic procession under command of Colonel V. A. S. Williams. All branches of the force were represented and the Strathcona and Princess Patricia units were placed around the state coach. The crowds lining the streets gave the Canadians an enthusiastic reception.

About the middle of November the rain settled down in earnest and did not cease for a month. The constant tramp of many feet churned into mud the clay turf overlaying the chalk. The rain could not percolate this mixture as it did the unbroken sod and in a few days the mud was from a few inches to a foot and a half deep.

The smooth English roads which traversed Salisbury Plain, lacking depth of road metal, were quickly torn to pieces by the heavy traffic of motor lorries and steam traction engines; passing cars and lorries sprayed the hedges with this mud emulsion which was constantly being formed by the traffic, and the sharp flints which were exposed tore motor tires to pieces like so much broken glass.

Cold high winds, saturated with moisture, accompanied the rain, and the Canadians, though accustomed to a severe climate, felt the cold in England as they never had before. Tents were blown down by hundreds in the gales and the discomforts sometimes became almost unbearable. The tents were wet all the time, the clothes and blankets of the men became water-soaked and remained so for long periods at a time. There were no stoves or other facilities for drying purposes. But necessity is the mother of invention and the Canadian soldier soon learned that he could keep warm by the simple process of wrapping himself in wet blankets and steaming as he would in a Turkish bath with himself as the heater. He also made the discovery that a pair of wet socks well wrung out and placed next his chest at night would be almost dry in the morning.

It became almost impossible to do any training; even route-marching was not feasible when it meant another drenching for the men and, as a result, the Canadian contingent began a process of disintegration. Men began to grouse at the conditions and it was only when an epidemic of influenza, speedily developing into an epidemic of spinal meningitis occurred that an attempt was made to ameliorate the astonishingly bad conditions. The morale of the men, under these depressing conditions, began to go and large numbers of them moved into the little villages round about in an endeavour to get dry and have a few hours comfort before being arrested and returned to camp.

It must be remembered that large numbers of the private soldiers in the First Canadian Contingent were college graduates and wealthy business men in Canada who refused to accept a situation which seemed to them both unnecessary, useless and dangerous. They knew that there were scores of little villages and towns in the vicinity of Salisbury Plain which could well be used for billeting purposes, and when no move was made they attempted to solve the problem for themselves. Under the conditions the military authorities were hard put to it to control the situation, and day after day motor lorries returned loaded with men under arrest for trying to obtain a few hours of comfort and rest. With the alarm occasioned by the outbreak of meningitis the authorities at the war office were at last awakened to the seriousness of the situation, and the huts at Lark Hill, designed for the accommodation of Canadian troops, began to go up much faster, while the Canadian artillery and many other units were billeted in the little villages adjoining the Plain. It was difficult to recognize in the happy, clean and smiling individuals in billets the grousing, dirty, unkempt individuals of the Plains. At no time afterwards in France did the Canadians experience anything like the discomfort and misery they experienced in midwinter in the south of England.

On November 20th there were 150 in the Canadian hospital at Bulford Manor; three weeks later there were 780.

With the outbreak of meningitis a laboratory was established and through it an endeavour was made to control the epidemic, hopeless as the medical authorities knew it to be. Nevertheless the epidemic was not an unmixed evil; it educated both combatant officers and men as to the necessity of observing the underlying principles necessary to prevent the spread of any contagious disease. It also showed them that a disease once out of hand could play greater havoc than a German attack.

One infantry brigade which was kept moving about all winter in tents, which were pitched every few days on clean sod, did not have as much sickness as some of the others which were housed in defective huts with sealed windows, open floors and provided with stoves.

Early in January the weather conditions improved, training was begun once more and a very rapid improvement became apparent in the men. Singing was heard again in the tents at night and on route-marches and smiling faces once more appeared everywhere. The division rapidly rounded into shape and in February it quietly disappeared at night and passed over the Channel.

Lord Roberts in November made his last public appearance before the Canadians and addressing the men said in part:

> Three months ago we found ourselves involved in this war, a war not of our own seeking, but one which those who have studied Germany's literature and Germany's aspirations knew was a war which we should inevitably have to deal with sooner or later. The prompt resolve of Canada to give us such valuable assistance has touched us deeply. . . . we are fighting a nation which looks upon the British Empire as a barrier to her development and has long contemplated our overthrow and humiliation. To attain that end she has manufactured a magnificent fighting machine and is straining every nerve to gain victory . . . it is only by the most determined efforts that we can defeat her.

It was this superb German military organization created by years of tireless effort, which Canadian civilians had volunteered to fight. Was it any wonder that some of the most able Canadian and British leaders doubted whether men and officers, no matter how intelligent, could ever equal the inspired barbarians, who even at that particular moment were battling with the finest British and French regulars in a struggle for the Channel forts?

BATTLE OF THE AISNE

During this period in which the Canadians were undergoing their training in Valcartier and enduring the horrors of Salisbury weather stirring events had been happening in Flanders. The

Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

FIRST BATTLE SQUADRON OF THE BRITISH NAVY

The credit of maintaining the freedom of the seas throughout the war belongs to these splendid fighting machines under the command of Admiral Beatty.

German march on Paris had been stopped at the Marne and the Allies assuming the offensive had driven the Germans back to the Aisne.

Here the Germans established themselves in positions which had been prepared by parties of sappers left behind for the purpose during the great sweep toward Paris. Trenches were dug along the crest of the plateau about two miles from the river. The height of the plateau, with its projecting spurs commanded not only the river and most of the roads but gave wonderful opportunities for enfilading fire.

On September 13th the allied troops were halted before this barrier and made a frontal attack which lasted until September 18th without successfully breaking the German line. It was a hard fought battle, in which the British alone sustained 12,980 casualties, but apparently inflicted about 50,000 casualties on the Germans. General Joffre seeing the futility of sacrificing men in a continued frontal attack of this kind, decided to extend his left flank to envelop Von Kluck's right flank. This flanking strategy was met by the Germans who extended their line to outstrip our movement, with the result that there began that great and remarkable race for the North Sea, in which each army struggled desperately to outflank the other.

The reasons for adopting this practice were simple enough. It was quickly realized that fresh levies could hold trenches against the finest troops and it was therefore to the advantage of both armies to settle into trench-warfare until they could reconstitute their armies afresh and develop new ones. Besides it appeared as though, baulked in her attempt to seize Paris and destroy the French army, Germany might make a strong effort to render England powerless by siege and attacks from the French Channel ports. Germany was now hemmed in from Switzerland northward and if the one open stretch in Flanders could be closed by a continuous line of trenches Germany would be completely bottled up on her southern boundaries.

It was an interesting race. The British army, naturally wishing to cut down her long lines of communication and be near the Channel ports, was moved from the centre to the northern end of the French battle line. The British were just in time to meet the German force which had invested Antwerp and many new

German corps pouring over the Flanders plain towards the Channel ports of Calais and Boulogne. The meeting resulted in some of the bloodiest fighting of the whole war and once more showed that the regular British infantryman was unexcelled as a fighting man and was in hand-to-hand combat the equal of several Germans.

THE RACE FOR THE CHANNEL

The character of the country upon which the impending battles were to be fought is of interest in explaining their nature. On the south the Plateau of Albert rises between the River Somme and Scarpe. It is a typical Picardy upland of hedgeless roads, unfenced fields, lines of formal trees and here and there a stream. At its northern limit Arras lies among hills which sweep northwestward to the Channel, while the plain of the Scheldt River and its tributaries which included most of the British line is everywhere of intolerable flatness. A few low swells break its monotony such as the Mons de Cats, the respectable height of Cassel and the modest undulations south of Ypres and La Bassée, but in general it is as flat as a tennis lawn, intersected by innumerable sluggish rivers, canals and railways.

Ten miles north of Arras at the town of Lens the coal mining region of France begins. There the roads are lined with houses and factories and everywhere the headgear of collieries rise as in Lancashire.

Towards Ypres it is a country of market gardens where every inch is closely tilled and the land is carefully laid out like a chessboard. Towards the sea from Ypres we pass to a low-lying region traversed by innumerable canals where the soil seems to be a compromise between land and water. Near the sea is the great barrier of sand dunes through which the waterways of the interior pass by a number of sea canals into the shallow waters of the North Sea.

On this line the Allies, on the 20th October, awaited the attack of the enemy as they had done two months before on the Sambre and the Meuse. Now, as then, they were outnumbered; now, as then, they did not know the enemy's strength, and again their initial strategy had failed. The fall of Antwerp had destroyed the hope of holding the line of the Scheldt while the German occupation of La Bassée and Lille had spoiled any possibility of a turning movement against the German right. The Allies had two advantages over their position of October 20th and that of August 21st; their flanks were secure and they had now taken the full measure of the enemy.

The German staff had decided that the Channel ports must be won at all cost. They thought that the capture of Calais and Boulogne would gravely alarm public opinion in Britain and interfere with the sending of new troops whom they seriously dreaded in spite of official scepticism. With the coast in their possession they hoped to mount great guns which would command half the width of the narrows of the Channel. Under their range of fire they could lay mine fields and prepare a base for a future invasion of England. Such a measure they argued would complicate the task of the British fleet, which would then be compelled to watch two hostile bases, and, in such a division of task, the chance might come for a naval battle in which Germany would prove numerically superior.

If the allied front could be pierced at La Bassée, or still better at Arras, a section of the allied armies would be cut off and penned between the enemy and the sea. If successful a large part of the opponents' strength would be finally destroyed and a magnificent line of communications to the coast opened up. The third path along the shores by Nieuport would not be nearly so valuable; success there would simply mean that the allied left would be driven back inland, while the line of communications along the coast would be a poor one.

The importance of Arras, La Bassée, Ypres and Nieuport must be kept constantly in mind in following the campaign. East of Ypres our line bent forward in a bold salient which obviously provided a base for flank attacks upon any force advancing across the Yser and through La Bassée. Arras and La Bassée were the points where a successful piercing movement would have results of the highest strategic value in placing the whole allied left wing in deadly jeopardy. Ypres was a salient which if left alone, would endanger any German advance, while the Nieuport route would give a short though difficult passage to Calais and would turn the Allies' flank, though perhaps not seriously.

It is a sound rule in warfare that strength should not be dissipated. It is hard, therefore, to explain the course which the Germans now actually followed. They attacked almost simultaneously at all four points and for three weeks they desperately persisted in these attacks.

Had the movement against Arras succeeded all would have been won and the salient at Ypres would have only meant the more certain destruction of the British army. Had the attack upon La Bassée proved successful the same result would have been attained though the success would not have been as marked. Had even the worst of the three roads been chosen and the coast route cleared the allied flank must have fallen back from Ypres and La Bassée. It is therefore hard to understand why all four points should have been attacked with equal violence when either of the first two would have given possession to the others. Possibly the enemy was confident that his numerical superiority was sufficient to carry all four positions: the future alone will tell what was in the mind of the German staff.

The fighting on the Yser merged towards the south in the fighting at Ypres. The struggle for Ypres was closely connected with the battle raging from La Bassée to the Lys and this in turn was influenced by the fate of the left wing of the French army north of Lens.

THE FALL OF ANTWERP

When Brussels was threatened in August the Belgian Court had retired inside the Antwerp lines and during the first week of September the Belgian army made several gallant sallies from behind its defences.

On September 27th the German siege howitzers had come within range of the southern forts of Antwerp and the bombardment had begun. The Belgian army which had been fighting for nearly two months was now under 100,000 men and it was vastly outgunned by the enemy.

Antwerp could not be invested because of its proximity to the sea and the Dutch frontier. Its series of forts, which were only a partial protection, would quickly fall under the concentrated attacks of heavy howitzers. Germany desired the capture of Antwerp for several reasons, the chief of which was that it sheltered a hostile army on the German flank and was therefore an intolerable nuisance.

The forts soon fell before modern siege artillery and the fight for Antwerp became something of a field battle. When the population realized that the fall of the city was inevitable there was great depression, which was changed to joy when, on October 4th, 2,000 British Royal marines with several naval guns arrived, followed the next day by 6,000 more. The Belgians believing that Britain was sending further re-enforcements, of which these were but the beginning, became greatly elated. On October 6th, however, the city at last realized the truth; the British troops could not delay the inevitable and there was no hope of further re-enforcements.

On October 7th the Belgians and allied legations boarded steamers and passed down the Scheldt to the coast of France. The great oil tanks were set on fire and a great exodus of refugees began. On the morning of October 7th Antwerp contained about half a million people; by the evening a quarter of a million had gone and by the following night the place was as solitary as a desert. Many refugees travelled by water ferries, trawlers, pleasure yachts and fishing boats; even rafts were used. On land thousands of refugees crossed the Scheldt by a bridge of boats, and by ferry and fled to Ghent; most of them took the road which ran to the Dutch frontier. Over 200,000 exiles were received by the Dutch from this quarter and were kindly looked after and sheltered by the Dutch people.

On the evening of October 8th the defence of the city was at an end, the garrison had fallen back and most of it had crossed over the Scheldt. About 18,000 of the Belgian troops were driven into Holland, 1,800 British were missing or became prisoners of war and about 1,600 were interned in Holland.

This operation of despatching British soldiers to Antwerp was widely condemned. The numbers were not sufficient; their training was rudimentary, and altogether it was considered to be a side-show. On the other hand it was claimed to be part of a larger scheme to occupy the country between Ostend and Antwerp and deflect the new German front. Early in October the Seventh division of the Fourth army corps under Sir Henry Rawlinson had landed at Zeebruge and did invaluable work in covering the Belgian retreat.

The Seventh division finally linked up with the main British army in front of Ypres and the Belgians formed part of the new line from the coast to the French army which filled in the gap between the British and the Belgians.

THE BATTLE OF THE YSER

The Belgian army which had been retreating for days now consisted of only about 40,000 men, intensely battle-weary. The part of the line which they were to defend was the Yser and its devious water courses. They were supported by two divisions only of French territorials and a brigade of French marines. They were attacked by not less than 60,000 men and would probably have been pushed back from the Yser and the road opened up to Calais when help arrived from an unexpected quarter.

British monitors in the Channel enfiladed the German right on the sand dunes. The German commander brought his heavy guns into action against the British ships, but they were outranged and several batteries destroyed. For ten days the strange warfare continued, the monitors being re-enforced by old war craft of little value. The naval guns swept the country for six miles inland, the German right flank was pushed away from the coast and the German attack along the Yser was possible only beyond the range of the leviathans of the sea.

The Germans, now re-enforced, struggled desperately for the passage, while the Belgians, also re-enforced, steadily opposed them. Yard by yard the allies were driven back among the dykes and miry fields, when the Belgians, playing their last card, broke down the dykes and inundated the flat meadows. The Yser spread itself over the whole country to the depth of several feet and many Germans caught in the tide were drowned. The attack had failed disastrously, the Emperor who had watched the operations through his glasses shut them up and turned away. Thus ended the struggle for the shortest route to Calais.

LA BASSÉE

The Germans with the Crown Prince of Bavaria in command held La Bassée. Smith-Dorrien at first attempted an offensive, but from the 20th onward his whole energies were devoted to maintain his ground and blocking the passage to Bethune and the west.

The attack on La Bassée lasted for ten days and the Second corps, constantly under fire, had become exhausted when re-enforcements arrived in the Lahore division of the Indian corps. The struggle continued until the end of the month when the Meerut division arrived and took over the line. For the next three weeks the Indian corps resisted repeated attacks of the enemy which gradually slackened off owing to the concentration against Ypres.

BATTLE OF ARRAS

The most dangerous attack of all was that delivered from October 20th to October 26th at Arras. Von Buelow now in full strength and re-enforced by the Prussian Guards, aimed to cut the allied line in two and win the roads to Doullens and Amiens. In such case, not only would the Channel ports fall to him, but he would recover the northern road to Paris and achieve the main German objective, which was to split the allied line into two parts and drive them asunder by broadening the wedge.

General Maud'Huy, the commander of the French army, on which the blow fell, resisted most stubbornly. All attempts to break the French line failed and by the 26th Maud'Huy had begun to retaliate. Arras, which had been practically destroyed in the struggle, was freed from the German threat by repeated attacks of the French, which widened the circle about the city until it was finally beyond the reach of the German howitzers.

By November 1st the attack had failed and some of Von Buelow's best corps, including a division of guards, passed on to the north where, in front of Ypres, was being fought the longest, bloodiest, and most desperate combat in the history of the British armies.

FIRST BATTLE OF YPRES

The little city of Ypres stands on a tiny stream, the Yperlee, a tributary of the Yser. No Flemish town could boast a prouder history and though only a shell of its former grandeur, its noble cloth hall, dating from the twelfth century, testified to its vanished mercantile pre-eminence. To the east there were considerable patches of forest between Bixschoote and the Lys valley; to the south was a series of slight ridges from Messines to Zandevoorde. The rest of the country is a dead flat over which the spires of Ypres stood out forming a landmark for miles around. In all directions from the town radiated the cobbled Flemish roads, the two main highways on the east being those to Roullers and to Menin, with an important cross road cutting the river five miles from Ypres at the village of Gheluveldt.

On the evening of the 19th the allied offensive had virtually ceased. The Allies were aware that at last they had reached the main German front. Everywhere in Flanders the German armies daily growing in numbers threatened to fall in a tidal wave upon the thin and far-stretched allied line.

In the great battle which began on and lasted till the British First and Third corps, the Seventh division, Allenby's cavalry crops and Byngs' Third cavalry division were chiefly involved.

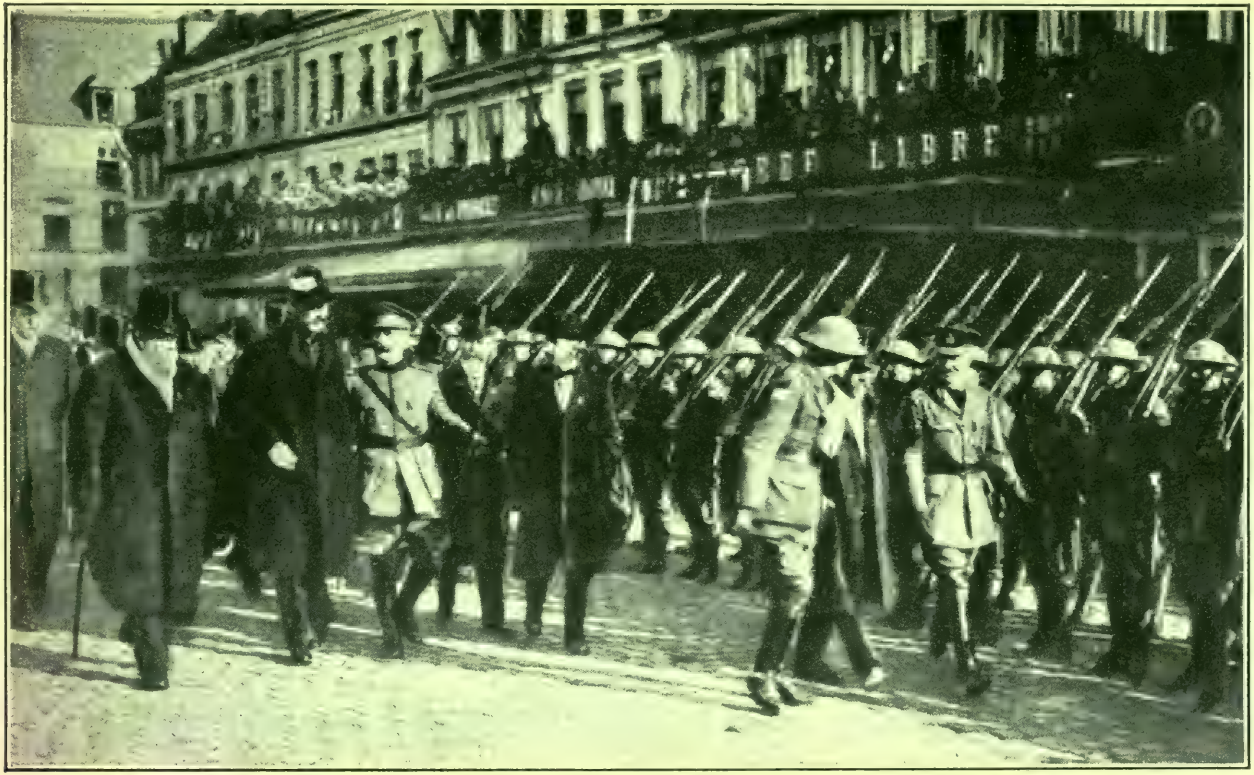
The first battle of Ypres must rank as one of the most remarkable contests of the war. It is certainly one of the most remarkable in the record of the British army. Between Lille and the east, the Germans had not less than one million men; six of their fourteen army corps were first line troops and even the new formations were terrible in assault, more terrible perhaps than veteran soldiers, for they were still unwearied and the edge of their keenness was undulled. Those immature German boys and elderly men, who often went to pieces before our counter-attacks, came on with incredible fury in their early charges. Against that part of the force which faced us we had an army of 100,000 which never became more than 150,000.

In the actual salient of Ypres the British had three divisions and some cavalry during the worst part of the fighting to meet five army corps, three of which were of the first line. For two days one division, the Seventh, held a front of eight miles against three army corps.

During the mad struggle, which at times became hopelessly mixed, officers gathered and flung into the breach whatever men they could find. Subalterns found themselves in command of battalions, brigadiers in command of companies or divisions as the fates ordered. At one moment a certain brigadier had not less than thirteen battalions under him.

Sir Henry Rawlinson in an order issued to the Seventh division said:

> After the deprivations and tension of being pursued day and night by an infinitely stronger force the division had to pass through the worst ordeal of all. It was left to the little force of 12,000 to keep the German army at bay while the other British corps were being brought up from the Aisne. Here they hung on like grim death with almost every man in the trenches, holding a line which of necessity was a great deal too long—a



VICTORIOUS PRINCESS PAT'S

General Sir Henry Horne, accompanied by the Mayor of Mons, inspecting Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry after the brilliant recapture of the city. The Mayor presented the Canadian Seventh Infantry Brigade with the keys of Mons, and General Currie presented the Canadian Corps' flag to the town.

thin exhausted line against which the prime of the German first line troops were hurling themselves with fury. The odds against them were about eight to one, and, when once the enemy found the range of a trench, the shells dropped into it from one end to the other with terrible effect; yet the men stood firm and defended Ypres in such a manner that a German officer afterwards described their action as a brilliant feat of arms and said that they were under the impression that there had been four British army corps against them at this point. When the division was afterwards withdrawn from the fighting line to refit itself it was found that out of 400 officers who set out from England there were only 44 left and out of 12,000 men only 2,336.

Ypres was a soldiers' battle won by dogged fighting qualities of the rank and file rather than by any great tactical brilliance. There was no room or time for ingenious tactics.

Rarely in the history of war do we find a great army checked and bewildered by one a fifth of its size. It was a seemingly hopeless stand against a torrential invasion and it is to the eternal honour of our men that they did not break and of their leaders that they did not despair.

The cost of Ypres was high, the German casualties were stated to have been not less than 250,000 in the three weeks' battle. The allied force from Albert to Nieuport lost well over 100,000 men. In the Ypres fighting alone the British lost at least 40,000. The total loss to the combatants was not far from the losses of the North during the whole of the American Civil War.

Whole battalions like the First Coldstreams, the Second Royal Scots Fusiliers, the Second Wiltshires and the First Camerons practically disappeared. One divisional general, two brigadiers, a dozen staff officers and the colonels of eighteen battalions were lost. Scarcely a house famous in British history but mourned a son.

Ypres was a decisive victory and achieved its purpose. The allied line stood secure from the Oise River to the sea. A flanking movement and attempts to pierce the allied line had both failed and the enemy's short-lived initiative was over. He was now compelled to adopt the form of battle we had determined, with the keenness taken from his ardour and with great gaps in his ranks. Had we failed he would have won the Channel ports, destroyed the allied left and the war would have taken on an entirely new character. Ypres was in a special sense a British achievement. Without the Belgians on the Yser and the French at Arras the case of course would have been hopeless but the most critical task fell to the British troops. They opposed the blood and iron of the German onslaught with a stronger blood and a finer steel. It would be invidious to select special troops for praise; the cavalry, the howitzer brigades, the infantry and the artillery together with the yeomanry and territorial battalions were all beyond praise.

It was within the sound of the guns roaring around Ypres that Lord Roberts passed away. This greatest of British soldiers on a visit to his beloved Indian troops contracted a chill, pleurisy followed and on Saturday the 14th the end came. It was peculiarly fitting that the master-gunner should die within the sound of his guns and that the most adored of British soldiers should have his passing amid the army he had loved so well. He had given his best to the service of the country and had foregone his well-earned rest to preach the lessons of wisdom to ears that refused to listen. His career was an inspiration both as a soldier and a man. He died, as he had lived, in harness.

TURKEY IN THE WAR

When diplomatic relations between Austria and Serbia were broken, Turkey stated that she would remain neutral. Her position was that the results of the war might pass beyond the limits of the conflict between the warring countries and that her interests might be materially affected. She intended to remain neutral but would, when possible, take advantage of opportunity by diplomatic means. The Turks stated that they would also be forced to safeguard their interest and their frontiers and the Turkish mobilization was at once begun. Almost immediately Turkey received word that two battleships in course of construction for her in British shipyards had been taken over by England, and, in consequence, a certain amount of feeling was aroused against England which was carefully nourished by her enemies.

Turkey for a century had been on good terms with France and Great Britain; Russia had been her hereditary enemy. She had been recently defeated by the Balkan Powers and naturally she wished to recover her lost provinces in Europe.

German intrigue for some years previous to the outbreak of war had achieved a great influence in Turkey. Von Sanders, a

German general, was practically in control of the Turkish army which had been remodelled on the mechanical German system.

Upon declaration of war between Germany and Russia, Turkey declared the Bosporus and Dardanelles closed to all kinds of shipping; at the same time she mined the entrance to these channels. These measures effectually prevented the Russian Black Sea fleet from getting out while it prevented any possibility of the allied naval forces getting in.

During September the Turkish Government became increasingly warlike and an active campaign against England and the Allies was maintained in the Turkish press. Great efforts were made by Turkey to secure Rumanian and Bulgarian co-operation The Allies countered by offering to Bulgaria Thrace and Adrianople; to Greece they offered Smyrna and to Rumania the Rumanian provinces in Austria. Agreement between these Powers was made impossible through jealousy of one another and nothing came of it.

On 27th October the Turkish and Russian fleets came to blows and the Turks claimed the destruction of a number of German vessels. War was at once declared against England, Russia and France by the Sultan who proclaimed a Holy War. It was hoped that by this proclamation three hundred millions of Moslems would be induced to rise, and visions of the overthrow of British rule in India were clearly visible to the German general staff. Nothing came of it however. and the Holy War, as such, was a fiasco.

On November 5th Great Britain declared war against Turkey, seized all Turkish vessels in British ports and annexed the island of Cyprus. On the 17th December Egypt was formally declared a British protectorate since the Khedive had thrown in his lot with the Turks.

Turkey found herself unable to make any move to recover her provinces in Thrace since Greece and Bulgaria were neutral.

CHAPTER X

The Princess Patricias in Action

At the end of November, 1914, after the German failure to break through the Channel ports, the struggle in the west degenerated into a stalemate. During the winter that followed, the allied armies, still outnumbered and outgunned, were organizing their forces of men and material and were not yet ready for a general attack. France and Britain had not their reserves ready but every day brought them closer. The allied inaction was, in one way, a form of offensive, because delay meant that the allied forces must increase and Germany's decrease. By frequent local attacks the new armies being gathered together on the western front were being trained in actual warfare. Germany was prevented from concentrating in force against any one part of the allied line, and troops which might have been sent eastward were detained.

It was a war of attrition and meant that German losses must be considerably greater than ours because of the nature of the German fighting methods.

In January, 1915, the experts calculated that Germany had reached her maximum in man power. The Allies were far from their climax; the new British armies, training since September 1914, were slowly beginning to arrive on the western front, three new French armies were being formed and new Russian millions were in course of organization.

It was expected generally that the Germans would strike in the west. On the contrary, after withdrawing one corps from the western front, and creating five new formations she made a violent attack upon the Russian front.

All along the Franco-British front during these winter and early spring months of 1915 the Allies nibbled away at the German line, seizing an important bit of trench here, a small but important hillock there, flattening out a small salient in another place and in general considerably improving their line. None of the gains were large enough to be represented on the ordinary map, but on the whole they amounted to a great deal when the time came for the Allies to make an attack on a large scale. These series of attacks which are too numerous and complicated to give in detail were singular in the remarkable series of heroic actions by individuals. In "No Man's Land," at night raiding parties would meet one another and struggles of the most fiendish description took place in which all forms of warfare were forgotten and men fighting without the usual bayonets, knives or clubs, swayed to and fro, locked in each other's arms, endeavouring to choke or incapacitate the other, like savages in the early dawn of the "civilized" world.

It is interesting to note that no matter whether the Allies or the Germans attacked, the losses of the enemy were by far the greater. As an example, the battle of Soissons was made a great deal of by the enemy, but was of little real significance. In it the French lost 5,000 men and some guns; the Germans lost twice that number and but slightly improved their position.

Further down in the Champagne the French made an attack on a large scale having for their object the threatening of German lateral communications as well as detaining a large number of troops which might otherwise have been sent to re-enforce Hindenburg in the great struggle on the Niemen. The general advance preceded by violent artillery bombardment of the German positions began on February 16th, and, though not successful in achieving its ostensible object, it drew into action five and a half German corps which suffered severely, while Von Einem was compelled to call for reserves which would otherwise have gone to the Russian front or remained in Flanders. During that offensive 10,000 German dead were buried and 2,000 prisoners taken.

The War of Attrition from the North Sea to Verdun was successful in reducing the enemy's strength of men and material and in preventing him from sending troops to the Russian frontier. The French efforts in Alsace and the Woevre, besides having their local value, won positions which were very valuable to France when the time came for the great advance to be made.

Only those on the British front during the late winter of 1914–15 realized how thinly the line was held and how few reserves there were to repel the enemy in case of an attack. Nature, by converting the surface of the ground into a sea of mud, made any serious attack impossible in the Flanders area. Day after day as I traversed the ill paved and muddy roads of Flanders I met troops, weary, caked with mud and soaking wet, slithering over the slimy cobblestones or splashing through the pools of slime and water with their heavy packs and rifles. And as they marched along with that peculiar bent-kneed, inelastic stride so characteristic of infantrymen they almost invariably sang some music-hall ditty. They sang because they were going back to some heaven in billets where they would be clean and dry and happy for a few days before their next turn in the trenches.

TRENCH WARFARE

After the first battle of Ypres in late November, the British people particularly were most optimistic. The English press published victorious headlines stating that the allied armies on the western front had been victorious. Soldiers returning on leave were amazed and exasperated at the calmness of the British people before they discovered it to be due to ignorance. The censorship which concealed from the British people their wonderful and glorious military exploits had robbed the people of that exaltation of national spirit which makes it possible to create armies and win battles.

As the stalemate developed, the shallow, hastily-dug trenches were developed into elaborate excavations, revetted with wire and willow fencing. Along these trenches shelters or dugouts, protected by coverings of wooden beams or iron, layers of brick and earth, were excavated for the protection of the fighters. Eventually the trench system became a series of ramifications of ditches and earthworks defended by barbed wire entanglements and other devices, such as the local conditions might suggest.

An advanced trench consisted of a ditch, not more than two feet wide, with a recess every few yards so that troops during an attack could not be enfiladed. Sometimes these trenches were completely separated from one another but this was not the custom. The front line trenches were at least five feet deep and were usually held lightly. The communication trenches passing to the rear at some convenient angle also zigzagged in order to prevent enfilading fire.

Behind the front line trenches were reserve trenches and in some cases even third line trenches, while away back from the front line area stretched other lines of trenches prepared in case of a retreat. The communication trenches led to points on the road or into some cellar or other position where the men emerging were protected from the gaze of the enemy.

The floors of the trenches were usually covered with wooden duck-boards which prevented the men from sinking too deeply into the mud. Firing took place from the advanced trenches and sniping was usually done through loopholes frequently directed by periscopes.

As one combatant crept towards the other, saps were run out and new lateral trenches built off from these. Mining was a constant feature on both sides. Tunnels were dug in the ground and carried forward under the enemy lines, quantities of explosives were placed in these and sections of enemy trenches blown up. All day long snipers were busy picking off the unwary, who were careless enough to show themselves above ground.

It was interesting to note that the methods of centuries ago came again into being; grenades, and bombs again took their place in our scheme of warfare.

The first bombs made by the British were rough improvised affairs made at the front. The original home-made bombs consisted of jam tins filled with explosives, bits of iron and rock and contained a fuse. When this fuse was lit and the bomb hurled into the enemy trench, it exploded, doing a certain amount of damage. Other amateur bombs were made from glass jars similarly treated. These improvised affairs, however, were quickly discarded and many new types were developed of varying degrees of efficiency. One of the most elaborate varieties consisted of a stick with a complicated bomb attached to one end and some pieces of ribbon attached to the other. These were swung by hand and hurled into the enemy trench, the ribbons serving the purpose of guiding the bomb so that it would strike on the end containing the detonator. Many varieties were evolved but a small form, shaped like a lemon and capable of being thrown with great accuracy, soon superseded all others. After the pin had been removed from this Mills bomb a certain number of seconds elapsed before the bomb exploded. It proved to be the most efficient variety, was simple to manufacture and comparatively cheap. Another development was the rifle grenade; it was really a bomb on the end of an iron rod which was inserted into the end of the rifle. When the rifle was fired off the bomb was projected into the air, and if the aim was accurate it fell into the enemy trench with results much similar to those of a hand-bomb. The trench mortar was developed very rapidly and all the old armouries of the world seemed to have been ransacked for ideas. The writer saw one trench mortar, made of wood, lying on the roadside by an advanced dressing station, which looked as if it might have taken part in the Siege of Troy.

This phase of warfare was rapidly developed by the Germans who devised trench mortars that could hurl huge projectiles of one hundred to two hundred pounds in weight with fair accuracy; on explosion these "minnenwerfer" would literally wipe out the section of trench struck.

Field artillery proved of little value in trench warfare because the flat trajectory of its shells made them almost harmless on explosion to men living underground in narrow ditches in the earth. Against trenches shrapnel proved almost useless and the Allies began firing high explosive shells almost exclusively to destroy trenches and battery positions.

The field howitzers played a far more important part in trench warfare. This type of gun fires its shell high into the air so that it descends almost perpendicularly. When such shells succeed in hitting trenches they do a tremendous amount of damage and if used in sufficient numbers to a given section of trench rapidly pulverize it.

The misery and discomfort of trench warfare cannot be described or even imagined. The misery of it, particularly in the autumn of 1914 and the winter of 1915, baffles the power of language. Men lived and slept in mud and water sometimes inches deep, sometimes above their knees, week in and week out. Icy water and mud and the inability of the men to exercise resulted in "trench feet," a disease, in its mild form, somewhat similar to a glorified "chilblain." When untreated it rapidly developed into gangrene which might result in the loss of a limb or prove fatal. One new British division, coming from a warm climate into the trenches in the winter, lost such a large percentage of its effectives in the course of a few days that a thorough investigation was made by G. H. Q. and the officer in charge severely censured. Preventive

Photo by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

CANADA'S GLORIOUS FIRST CONTINGENT

The Dominion's instant response to the call sent regiment after regiment piling across the seas, establishing a remarkable record of defying the submarines. This picture shows Canadian troops after arrival in England drilling on Salisbury plain preparatory to a review by King George.

measures consisting in the drainage of trench systems, the universal use of duck-boards under foot, the systematic removal of wet socks, chafing the feet with whale oil and putting on fresh socks resulted in the rapid disappearance of the disease. Eventually it was made an offense both for the soldier who developed trench feet and for the officer under whose charge he was.

The clothing and feeding of the British army was beyond criticism, and men returning from the trenches weary, dishevelled and indescribably dirty were soon restored to reasonable good humour and appearance. So efficient was the work of the commissariat and the medical corps that the British sick rate was not more than three per cent;—less than that of many garrison towns in time of peace and infinitely lower than that during any war of the past.

At this time the British army had lost more than the number they had first put in the field, and had been deprived of a large number of experienced officers.

THE PRINCESS PATS UNDER FIRE

The famous regiment known as the Princess Patricias Canadian Light Infantry, recruited by Gault of Montreal from men who had had actual experience in warfare, was, on August 12th, presented with colours by Princess Patricia, daughter of the Governor General, the Duke of Connaught. These colours, worked by the Princess herself, were the only colours allowed to be carried into the field by a Canadian regiment. In due course the battalion arrived on Salisbury Plain, and after the review of the Canadians by the King it moved over to Winchester on November 14, 1914. There it joined the Eightieth brigade of the Twenty-seventh British division. On December 20th, re-equipped with the British Lee-Enfield rifle, it moved to Southampton and after a short stay in Havre, entrained for St. Omer where it arrived on December 23d. The journey north was the usual one in crowded trucks for eight horses or forty men. After some trench digging for a few days the battalion was inspected by Sir John French and on January 4th the brigade moved up to Dickiebusch and that night went into the line.

There the usual trench routine was carried on until February 28th, when an attack was made upon a German Saphead with success. On March 14th the enemy in an attack secured the front trench and the greater part of St. Eloi and the P. P. C. L. I.'s went forward from billets at Westoutre into action. While they were occupying the new support trenches Colonel Farquhar, their commanding officer, was killed and was succeeded by Lieutenant-Colonel Buller.

On April 9th the Princess Pats moved to Polygon Wood in the Ypres salient and remained there during the gas attack on the First Canadian division. On May 3d an enemy attack was repulsed and the battalion went into reserve. During the shelling, which was continuous and heavy, Colonel Buller was wounded and was succeeded by Major Gault.

On May 6th the P. P. C. L. I.'s went back into the front line and were there subjected to a terrific bombardment which continued all through the 7th. At dawn on May 8th the enemy attacked but was mowed down by rifle fire and withered away. The bombardment then became intensified, every wire was destroyed while whole sections of trench were blown in and the men behind them buried. By that time every signaller, orderly, pioneer and cook on the strength of the P. P. C. L. I.'s was in the support trenches.

Major Gault was wounded and the command devolved upon Lieutenant Niven. Two hours later the shelling again ceased to permit of an infantry attack which the Canadians again repulsed with great losses to the enemy.

The losses of the battalion were by this time very heavy, and enemy machine guns pushed forward swept the broken Canadian trenches. The brigade front was now battered beyond recognition; men were lying in shell holes or on the open ground and there were gaps of fifty yards without a survivor.

The shelling again began and every semblance of the fire trench was destroyed; every officer except Lieutenants Niven, Papineau, Vandenberg and Clark had been wounded or killed. Another enemy attack was then made but was only partially successful when nearly all the garrison had been killed. At 11.30 that night the remnant of the P. P. C. L. I.'s, 150 in all, were relieved and moved back into reserve trenches.

There they were employed carrying up supplies and digging until May 13th when, with the Fourth K. R. R. C., they formed a composite battalion and moved into the trenches at Hooge Château.

After a successful counter-attack by the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth divisions on May 24th the regiment moved to a quiet sector on the Armentieres front. In September the P. P. C. L. I.'s, now re-enforced to full strength, moved to the Amiens front. On November 8th the regiment was ordered to return to the Canadian force where it was met by the band of the First Canadian division.

On January 1, 1916, the P. P. C. L. I.'s were absorbed into the Seventh brigade of the Third Canadian division under Major-General Mercer and thereafter its history is that of the Third Canadian division.

CANADIAN DIVISION ARRIVES IN FLANDERS

On February 4, 1915, the Canadian troops were reviewed by King George and on the following day left Salisbury Plains and entrained for Avonmouth en route to France. The division was under the command of Lieutenant-General Alderson. The First infantry brigade was commanded by Major-General M. S. Mercer, the Second infantry brigade by Major-General A. W. Currie and the Third infantry brigade by Major-General R. E. W. Turner, V.C., D.S.O. The artillery was under the command of Brigadier-General H. E. Burstall, the divisional engineers were commanded by Brigadier-General Armstrong, the divisional mounted troops by Lieutenant-Colonel F. C. Jameson and the divisional signallers by Major F. A. Lister.

The division sailed from Avonmouth and reached the port of St. Nazaire in France in the second week of February. The division left England with high hopes, for it was recognized that men of finer physique were not to be found anywhere in England and it was confidently believed that their courage would prove equal to their appearance. Nevertheless it was natural that some of the most highly trained officers of the Canadian division should have some anxiety as to the ability of comparatively raw troops and officers to stand up against the superb military organization which Germany had so scientifically constructed. It was natural to doubt that civilians with a few months' training, no matter how brave and intelligent, could be a match for the arrogant barbarians who had swept over the allied countries in Europe.

After a slow rail journey of some 350 miles from St. Nazaire the Canadian division detrained a few miles west of Ploegsteert. The British army at that time held only the thirty miles of front lying between Ypres and Bethune.

Immediately after their arrival the Canadian troops began taking their turn in the trenches. As was the custom they were sandwiched in, in small sections, between seasoned regiments. Later they went in by companies, then by regiments, then by brigades, after which the division was given its own section of front. It was found that the men quickly assimilated the elements of trench routine by actually associating with men who had been engaged in that work for some time.

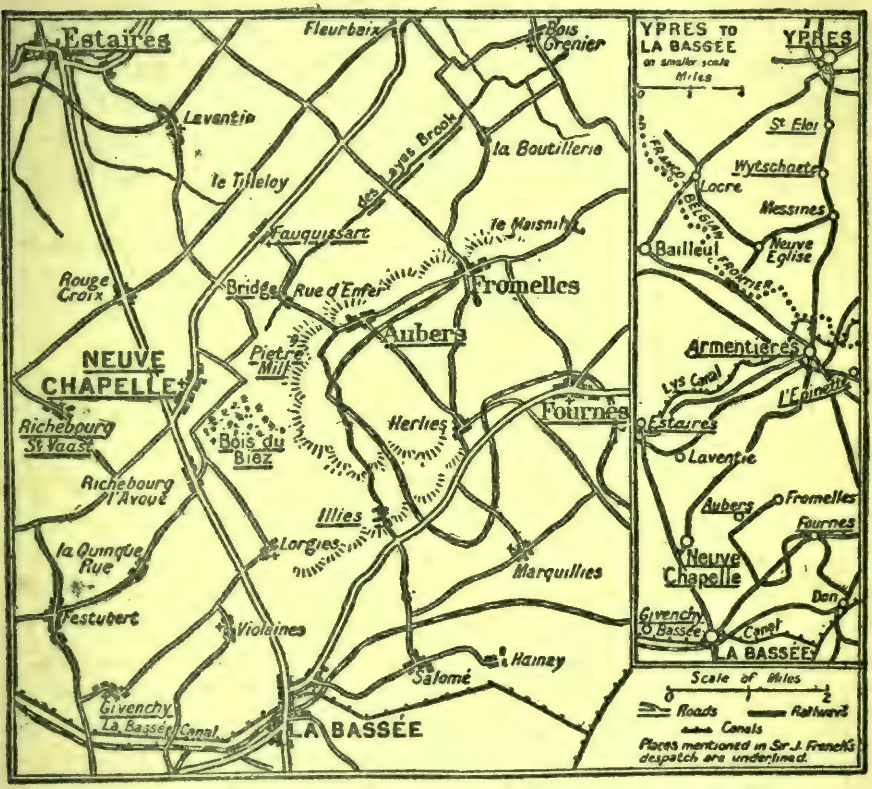
The Canadians were adaptable and soon fell into the routine of trench warfare. Shortly after their arrival the battle of Neuve Chapelle took place on their right, and although our infantry were not engaged in the fighting they were ready in case the attack succeeded. The Canadian artillery played its part in the great attack.

BATTLE OF NEUVE CHAPELLE

By March, 1915, the British forces had been considerably augmented. In November the Eighth division had arrived, and in January the Fifth corps had been constituted with two new divisions, the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth, made up largely of men brought back from tropical stations. In February the Canadian division arrived and at the beginning of March several new territorial divisions. The total British troops in Frace and Belgium, including all arms, amounted to about half a million,—an army twelve times as large as that with which Wellington triumphed in the Peninsular War and fifty-five times as great as the force which charged with King Henry at Agincourt. It should be remembered that the number of infantrymen was only a fraction of this number.

It had been decided that an offensive should be undertaken on the British front and the section chosen was that opposite the village of Neuve Chapelle. The enemy in that region it was thought would probably be off its guard and the section was of real strategic importance. In front of it rises the Aubers ridge which, if won, would command the approaches to Lille, Roubaix, Tourcoing and the cities in the plain of the Scheldt. If successful the La Bassée-Lille line would be threatened and Lille itself rendered untenable.

The attack involved an artillery bombardment four times as great as anything we had yet undertaken. In order to destroy the enemy trenches and entanglements and to achieve success it was necessary that the staff work should be most efficient, for the infantry would have to advance under the curtain of artillery fire which would precede them. If the co-ordination of different units was ineffective the attack was likely to fail.


Estaires
Fleurbaix
Bois Grenier
Laventie
la Boutillerie
le Tilleloy
des Layes Brook
Fauquissart
le Maisnil
Rouge Croix
Bridge
Rue d'Enfer
Fromelles
Aubers
NEUVE CHAPELLE
Pietre Mill
Richebourg St Vaast
Bois du Biez
Herlies
Fournes
Richebourg l'Avoue
Illies
la Quinque Rue
Lorgies
Marquillies
Festubert
Violaines
Salomé
Hainey
Givenchy
La Bassée Canal
LA BASSÉE
YPRES TO LA BASSÉE on smaller scale
Miles
0 1
YPRES
St Eloi
Wytschaete
FRANCO BELGIAN FRONTIER
Locre
Messines
Bailleul
Neuve Eglise
Armentières
Lys Canal
L'Epinette
Estaires
Laventie
Aubers
Fromelles
Fournes
Neuve Chapelle
Don
Givenchy
Bassée
Canal
LA BASSÉE
Scale of Miles
0 1 2
Roads
Railways
Canals
Places mentioned in Sir J. French's despatch are underlined.

Where Britons Made History in the Early Days of the War

On the 8th and 9th of March a great quantity of artillery of all descriptions was gathered together, including one of our new fifteen-inch howitzers. At 7.30 a terrific bombardment started, wire entanglements were blown up, trenches smashed and most of the German front disintegrated by the preparation which lasted for thirty-five minutes. A little after eight the infantry advanced as the gunners lengthened their range and shortly after 8.30 the village of Neuve Chapelle was in our hands. Everything had gone well up till noon when trouble began. Telephonic communications had been all cut, and it was difficult to get orders back. There were unaccountable delays in bringing up the necessary reserve brigades and the opportunity for pushing on and seizing the ridge rapidly disappeared.

The Germans, well protected by machine-gun fire, held up our advance and as night closed in it was necessary to dig in and strengthen the line we had won.

The next day the Germans had rallied and our asset of surprise had been lost while our great artillery effort had exhausted itself. By the evening of the 12th it was clear that we could not win the ridge, while the Germans were unable to retake Neuve Chapelle.

The most severe German counter-attack was not at Neuve Chapelle but at St. Eloi, fifteen miles further north. On March 14th, the Germans concentrated largely against the section held by the Twenty-seventh division near the Ypres-Armentieres road. As a result of the bombardment and fierce infantry attacks the British were forced out of their trenches and fell back but at 2 A. M. on the 15th March counter-attacked and recovered all of the lost ground of material importance. In this action the Princess Patricia's regiment was engaged for the first time in an action of first rate importance and their deeds were the pride of the whole empire.

This famous regiment, as has been mentioned, was originally composed of soldiers who had seen active service. Incidentally they were nearly all married men. The line in France in the winter of 1914 was exceedingly thin and trained reserves were very limited in numbers. Consequently the P. P. C. L. I.'s were despatched to France months before the Canadian division and took their place in relieving strain on the hard pressed British.

The battle of Neuve Chapelle in which we advanced on a front of three miles to a depth of a mile straightened out our line at that point. The ridges were not won but the enemy had a bad fit of nerves and suffered from something resembling a panic.

The German casualties were about 20,000 while we took 2,000 prisoners. The offensive put new heart into our men and made them feel that the new British troops had taken on the traditions and fighting qualities of the old. British casualties were 13,000 of which 2,500 were killed.

CHAPTER XI

The War at Sea

When Admiral Von Spee, with the German Pacific squadron, left Kiau-chau early in August, his squadron consisted of seven vessels, one of which, the *Emden*, was detached for commerce raiding in the Indian Ocean, while the speedy light cruiser *Karlsruhe* became a privateer in the South Atlantic. The vessels remaining with him consisted of the two armoured cruisers the *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst* and the three light cruisers, the *Dresden, Leipzig* and *Nurnberg*. This speedy well-armed squadron set out to prey upon our commerce routes and found coaling and provisioning bases in Ecuador, Colombia and the Gallapagos Islands in South America. Neutrals were very obliging at that time, and in some cases even permitted the German admiral to use their wireless stations.

Early in August, a small British squadron under Rear-Admiral Craddock had set sail to protect the southern trade routes. In this squadron was the battleship *Canopus,* two armoured cruisers, the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth,* the light cruiser *Glasgow,* and an armed liner *Attrento*. None of the vessels was strong either in speed or armament.

In the third week of October Craddock's squadron steamed up the coast of Chili toward Von Spee without the *Canopus* which had dropped behind for repairs. The re-enforcements expected daily from Great Britain had not arrived and the British admiral knew that in speed and range of guns his squadron was greatly inferior in fighting strength to the squadron of the enemy.

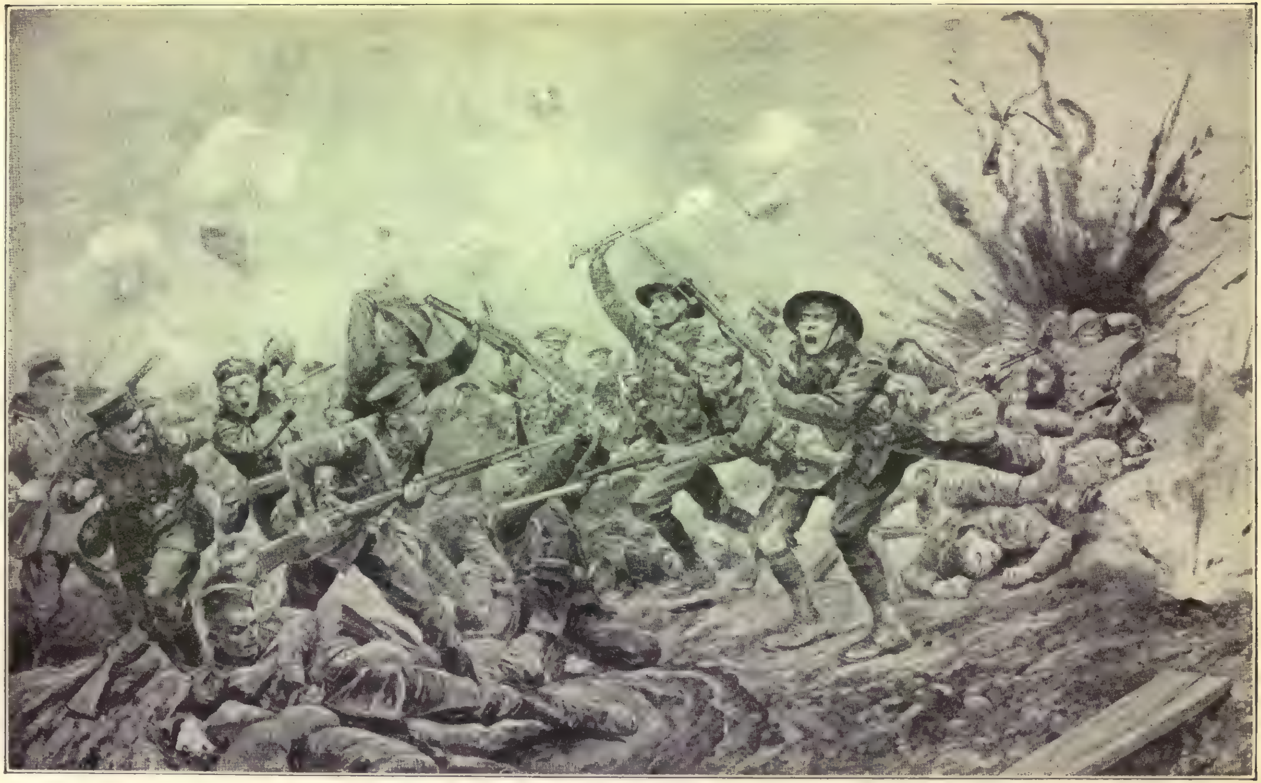
On the 1st of November, about four o'clock in the afternoon, the German fleet was sighted. About seven o'clock in the evening the squadrons had approached within seven miles of each other, the afterglow of the sunset lighting up the British ships standing out to sea while the Germans were masked in the inshore twilight. The enemy got the range and at seven-fifty the *Good Hope* was set on fire and destroyed. The *Monmouth* was also set on fire and steamed out to the open sea in distress. The *Glasgow,* though under fire at a range of two and a half miles, and struck by five shells on the waterline, escaped. Later on she fell in with the *Canopus,* steaming from the direction of Cape Horn, and the two proceeded towards the Straits of Magellan.

The news of this British disaster startled the British Admiralty, and almost at once Rear-Admiral Sturdee disappeared unheralded with a squadron to the South Atlantic. With him were the *Invincible* and *Inflexible,* the two first battle cruisers built by Britain. They had a possible speed of twenty-eight knots an hour and were armed with eight twelve-inch guns. He had also three armoured cruisers, the *Carnarvon,* the *Kent* and the *Cornwall,* and at sea picked up the *Bristol* and the *Glasgow.* The squadron was also accompanied by the armoured liner *Macedonia.*

Von Spee was trapped by a clever scheme known as the "double bluff." A wireless message was sent to the British battleship *Canopus* bidding her proceed to the Falklands. This message was intercepted by the Germans, who, as was intended, regarded it as a bluff, designed to mislead them. They believed that the *Canopus* was already at the Falkland Islands and would be an easy prey. Admiral Von Spee, therefore, proceeded to the Islands to make a prize of the *Canopus.* Von Spee knew nothing about the presence of Sturdee's expedition, a really remarkable tribute to the intelligence department of the Admiralty.

On the 7th December the British squadron arrived at Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands, and on the 8th, Admiral Von Spee arrived from the direction of Cape Horn. The Germans advanced in line to attack, and at nine-thirty, coming abreast of the harbour, saw for the first time the full strength of the British squadron. Von Spee at once put to sea with Sturdee's squadron steaming in pursuit. At five minutes to one, fire was opened upon the *Leipzig,* and Von Spee, seeing that flight was impossible, despatched his three light cruisers to the south. These were followed by the *Kent, Glasgow* and *Cornwall,* while the two British battle cruisers *Invincible* and *Inflexible* and the *Carnarvon* engaged the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau.* At four o'clock the *Scharnhorst,* pounded to pieces, turned bottom up and at six o'clock the *Gneisenau* also listed and went under.

The cruisers engaging the enemy fought desperately, and at seven-thirty the *Nurnberg* was set on fire by the *Kent* and went



HOW THE CANADIANS RETOOK LOST TRENCHES AT YPRES

The Canadians won fresh laurels by their heroic recapture, under heavy enemy fire, of lost ground in the vicinity of Ypres. The fighting was of the fiercest character and though our men lost heavily the ground was covered with German dead.

down while the *Leipzig* heeled over and sank at nine p. m. Only the *Dresden*, battered and fleeing far out to sea, remained of the German squadron.

The fight resulted in the annihilation of the one squadron left to Germany outside of the North Sea and removed a formidable menace to our trade routes. On all seas there were then left above water the *Dresden*, *Karlsruhe*, the *Bremen*, and the armoured merchantmen *Kronprinz Wilhelm* and the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* of all the armed vessels belonging to Germany.

The cruiser *Dresden* was caught off Juan Fernandez on March 14, 1915, by the *Kent* and *Glasgow*, and sunk in five minutes, while it is believed that the *Karlsruhe* was wrecked in the West Indies during the autumn of 1914.

In this fight the German sailors fought well and they went down with colours flying and with the men lined up on deck. Apparently there had never been a thought of surrender. There can be no higher praise than this that the German sailors died as Craddock's men had died.

BOMBARDMENT OF DEFENCELESS ENGLISH TOWNS

Early in the war the English people became obsessed with the idea that the enemy intended to invade England. As long as the Grand Fleet held the sea, invasion on a great scale was admittedly difficult or even impossible, though under cover of fog the possibility might become a reality. With this in view the yeomanry and territorials entrenched themselves in the eastern counties while there developed much activity in the formation of national guards.

On November 2d eight German warships left their harbour and, cleared for action, steamed towards England. At eight o'clock they were opposite Yarmouth and at a distance of ten miles bombarded the wireless station and naval air station. Their shells fell harmlessly on the beach and after dropping a number of floating mines they returned home. It was merely a reconnaisance and intended to render the British people uneasy. The affair was not taken seriously in England.

On December 15th, a day of thick mist on the Channel, a German squadron appeared off Scarboro, an open seaside resort without military defences. Approaching to within five hundred yards of the shore they systematically bombarded every large object in sight, including the gas works, water works, Grand Hotel, churches, public buildings, and hospitals. Five hundred shells were fired into the town during a period of forty minutes, after which the vessels moved northward, dropping mines as they steamed away. Eighteen people, mostly women and children, were killed and about seventy wounded.

About nine o'clock Whitby was similarly bombarded, several thousand shells falling on and around the town without causing serious damage, only three being killed and two wounded.

Another division visited Hartlepool which had a small fort with a battery of small antiquated guns. Off the shore a British gunboat, carrying 4-inch guns, and two destroyers lay when the four large German cruisers appeared suddenly out of the mist and opened fire upon them. The small British craft tried to close and torpedo the invaders but were driven off with a loss of half a dozen killed and twenty-five wounded. A bombardment of the fort with 12-inch shells was then instituted and in the course of half an hour about 1,500 shells seemed to have been fired. The battery stuck to its guns and though tremendously outclassed kept on firing with, of course, little success. Churches, hospitals, schools, gas works and houses were destroyed. One hundred and nineteen people were killed and 300 wounded, while three steamers that night struck mines dropped by the invaders and sank.

The attack came like a bolt from the blue and the citizens were suddenly plunged from profound peace into the midst of a nerve-racking war. The heroism shown by the civilians, and particularly among the telephone girls and children, was noteworthy.

The news of the attempt had reached the British Grand Fleet and two battle cruiser squadrons moved out to intercept the raiders. The mist thickened till a series of fog belts stretched one hundred miles out from the British shore. They probably saved the German squadron from absolute destruction.

The second battle cruiser squadron came within view of the enemy eight miles away and the trap was about to close when the fog thickened, the speed had to be reduced, and the German fleet made its escape.

The German aim was to create a panic in civilian England which would prevent the despatch of the new armies to the continent, and compel the Admiralty to move the base of the Grand Fleet nearer to the east coast. Both objects failed and no clamour was raised for the use of the new armies as a garrison for the British seaboard.

Neutral nations, particularly America, were seriously scandalized at the bombardment of defenceless towns, and Germany, which had at first made much of this exploit, undertook to make foolish explanations.

The slaughter of civilians for the purpose of producing an impression was repellant to men trained in the etiquette of a great service like the British navy. The German navy, which had hitherto been admired, had begun to show its parvenu origin and its lack of centuries of tradition.

BATTLE OF DOGGER BANK

On January 24th another German battle cruiser squadron left Wilhelmshaven presumably to repeat the exploits of its predecessors. The complete purpose of the German admiral, however, was not known. On the same morning the British battle cruiser squadron under Sir David Beatty also put to sea. About seven o'clock the Germans were sighted off the Dogger Bank. The enemy fled, apparently with the purpose of luring our vessels into the dangerous mined Helgoland area. At nine o'clock our guns opened fire on the *Blucher* and the British gunnery thereafter made excellent practice, shell after shell at a range of ten miles striking pinpoints that were moving at the rate of thirty miles an hour. At eleven o'clock the *Seydlitz* and *Derflinger* were on fire and the *Blucher* fell behind and sank.

The fortune of the battle which had been going favourably for the British altered about eleven o'clock when Admiral Beatty's flagship, the *Lion,* was struck by a shell, which so reduced her speed that the British admiral transferred his flag to a destroyer. About twelve-thirty he was able to overhaul the *Princess Royal,* to which he retransferred his flag, but found that his squadron had broken off the fight and was retiring. The reason assigned for this was that the British fleet was approaching a mine field newly laid by the Germans, and consequently it was deemed advisable to cease the attack before the fleet had become entangled therein.

The result was gravely annoying to Germany and the German admiral was shortly afterwards removed from the command of the High Sea Fleet.

The battle of Dogger Bank confirmed the British in their belief in the power of great guns, the excellence of British gunnery and the immense advantage of speed.

SUBMARINE BLOCKADE OF BRITAIN

Toward the end of January the German Government announced their intention of seizing all stocks of corn and flour; this meant that grain had become a munition of war. Merchandise, which was not contraband of war, had hitherto been allowed to pass into Germany in neutral vessels. Accordingly the British Government now found it necessary to revise its practice, and an American steamer, laden with foodstuffs for Germany, was stopped and the case referred to the prize courts. Germany, much agitated by the unforeseen results of the declaration, tried to modify it by stating that imports of food would not be used for military purposes. Such a declaration could not be accepted by Britain because it was impossible in practice. Thereupon Germany, in a fit of anger, boldy declared war against all British merchandise, a war which would follow none of the old procedures, for it would be conducted by submarines which had no facilities for rescuing crews or passengers. Germany announced that from February 18th onward the waters round the British Isles would be considered a war zone and that any enemy merchant vessel found there would be destroyed without warning.

The blockade of Britain was not a blockade in a technical sense because Germany merely specified certain areas in which she proposed to commit acts forbidden by every code of naval warfare.

The German announcement gave serious concern to neutral nations, particularly America. On March 1st the British announced that they considered themselves free to take into port all ships carrying goods of presumed enemy origin, ownership or destination. No neutral vessel sailing from a German port after that date would be allowed to proceed, and no vessel after that date could enter any German port. Such an announcement implied a strict blockade of Germany and was designed as a legitimate retaliation against a foe which had broken every international rule and every moral obligation.

German submarines immediately began sinking merchantmen in considerable numbers, the losses working out at about three per thousand of all sailings. The German blockade scarcely hindered the sailing of a single British ship; it did not even raise the price of necessaries, but it effectively ruined what was left of German reputation in the eyes of the civilized world. The German navy had no traditions and the humanity of submarine commanders depended on their personality. Some were as decent as their orders would permit of, while others jeered at the drowning sailors and passengers and even fired upon them when escaping in the lifeboats. Of all the errors committed by Germany this was the greatest, for by their cold-blooded and heartless actions they absolutely alienated the respect of the navy and merchant marine. In its place they inspired a remorseless anger which added a new zest to the otherwise indifferent sport of hunting down and destroying those sea pirates. And when the war ended Germany found their most powerful and implacable foes in the organized sailors' union which refused to allow German goods to be carried in British ships for the next ten years.

CHAPTER XII

The First Year of War

At the end of the first year of war the rich industrial region of Northern France with her great coal fields and iron mines, the greater part of Belgium and all Western Poland were under the German heel. The enemy was within only thirty miles of Paris and held all the high ground from La Bassée to Ypres. Germany had defeated the Allies in a series of great battles in France and Belgium. Her early defeats in Eastern Prussia had been wiped out by the complete overthrow of the Russian army at Tannenberg. Galicia, which in the early months had been overrun by the Russians, had been won back with all its oil fields and granaries. Warsaw seemed to be doomed and the Russian armies were apparently broken for months to come. The Allies had few spectacular victories to their credit though Turkey had been beaten in Mesopotamia and the Caucasus. In France the allied line had been securely held. Their attempt to force the Dardanelles had failed, the military effort of Italy had had little effect so far and there had been but little inducement for Greece, Rumania and Bulgaria to throw in their lot with the Allies.

On the other hand German possessions outside of Europe had melted away. Tsing-Tau, in China, upon which millions had been spent, had gone; Togoland, in Africa, had become a British colony, and the rest of Germany's African colonies had been won or were on the point of falling.

On the whole the honours of the first year appeared to lie with Germany, judging by facts alone. In looking beyond these bare facts, however, the outlook appeared in a different light.

Germany's plan of campaign depended on a speedy decision. She was to crush France, compel Russia to sue for peace and then deal with the rest of the world in her own good time. Her first plan had failed when her army was beaten on the Marne, her second plan had been then to seize the Channel ports, divide the Franco-British army and bring about peace before the winter. That plan failed when her army with odds of at least five to one failed to break our line and gain the Channel. Germany then adopted a third plan. She accepted the war of attrition for the moment and began piling up tremendous reserves of guns and munitions, which would enable her to hold her front with material instead of men-power, and would enable her to take the offensive with fewer men than her enemies, thus nullifying the increase in numbers which the allied armies were bound to shortly possess.

A battery of heavy guns operated by women miles off can destroy hundreds of expert infantrymen, who have no chance of attacking the engine of destruction. By accepting this third plan Germany condemned herself to a slow war, during which the Allies would add millions of men to their armies, though for a long time it would be impossible for them to manufacture the necessary war supplies at the same rate as Germany. With the war carried on for two or three years under these conditions Germany counted on the allied nations becoming restive and serious differences between the allied governments arising. She realized perfectly well the potentialities of Great Britain in men and material, but she knew that the British staff had been trained to handle small numbers of men only and would be unlikely to succeed when they would have to handle millions. Under these circumstances she hoped for a draw which would enable her, after some years of recuperation, to again emerge to the attack.

It must be remembered that Germany for twenty years at least had been building up this war machine of such great magnitude and power. All the energies of an autocratic government and a docile people had conspired to perfect methods in machinery that would prove irresistible.

After the war had begun the eyes of Germany's enemies had been opened, for the writings, speeches and, above all, their deeds were damning evidence as to the preparations and purposes of Germany in the past.

No price seemed too great for mankind to pay to destroy this arrogant people obsessed with beliefs that were hateful to the rest of mankind.

She had convinced the Allies that peace, except through battles won on the field, would be absolutely intolerable.

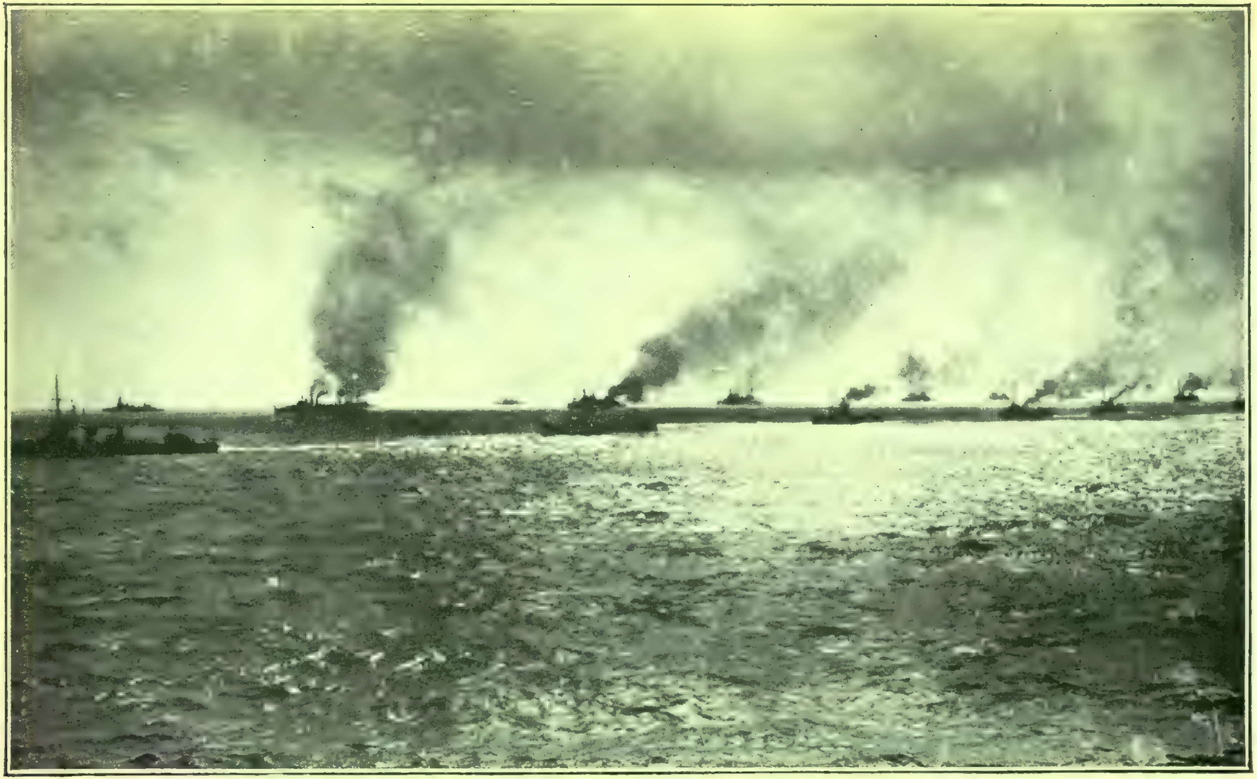
In Great Britain the truth about the German machine had slowly come home to the people. There was much talk about organization but organization simply meant to the average Briton the copying of German methods. The old constitutional catch-words were bandied about in the press, but the people, quicker to learn than the professional politicians, knew that there was a great lack of national leadership. It was an excellent example of the fact that a democracy is rarely fitted for war and in the hour of need is almost compelled to seek a dictator or its equivalent in order to avoid disaster.

The British people as a whole were remarkably ignorant of military questions. Nevertheless, though the censor eliminated much that was of absorbing interest, every man realized great facts, such as when Paris was nearly reached, Warsaw was in peril, when the Germans were succeeding and when the Allies were failing. But, not knowing that gigantic losses may have but little influence on the ultimate result, the average Britisher in the long months of mischance and defeat saw the campaign in colours much darker than the truth.

The Allies as a whole had less inherent capacity for organization than the Germans and failed to pool any of their assets scientifically. They even bargained against one another in neutral countries in purchasing munitions and supplies instead of co-operating in a big way. In one essential, however, the Allies were absolutely united, they had agreed to make peace as one power and they were resolved to make no peace which should be indecisive.

On the map the situation looked bad for the allied powers, yet day by day the numbers of the enemy steadily grew less while the allied war machine was being builded. The element of time was on the allied side, their armies had not been destroyed, their losses had been made good and it was perfectly clear, to the expert at least, that gains of allied territory meant nothing as long as the allied armies were undefeated.

The Allies worked harmoniously in spite of Teutonic endeavours to set labour against capital, to set the allied countries against each other by insisting upon the unfairness of the part being played by the others. The seeds of strife fell upon unreceptive ground, for Germany had inspired a universal and intense antagonism. Furthermore, there was a sincere admiration felt by each allied army for the performance of the others. The Allies also were more



© *Underwood and Underwood.*

THE ALLIED FLEET OPERATING AGAINST THE DARDANELLES

A remarkable photograph taken from the French battleship *Bouvet* showing the fleet in battle formation just before the bombardment of the Dardanelles. There were forty-two vessels engaged of which eighteen are shown in the picture.

disposed to criticise their own unpreparedness instead of their neighbours, and each was busy reconstructing and making the most of its own possibilities.

Italy had joined the Allies in May, 1915, and Venezelos had tried, though without success, to bring in Greece against the Teutonic League.

The situation in the Balkans had not yet resolved itself. The United States, though American steamers had been sunk by submarines and American lives lost, had kept her position of aloofness and merely protested by notes to which Germany replied disdainfully.

THE FALL OF PRZEMYSL

In April, 1915, the Allies looked to Russia with supreme confidence. The deficiency of men on the western front we hoped would be counterbalanced by an abundance of men which it was believed Russia must by then possess. It was generally held that Russia would assume the offensive either by advancing on Cracow or making a descent upon the Hungarian plains. The Allies counted upon Russia's offensive as the great offensive of the summer. It was, therefore, a tremendous disappointment when the Germans assumed the offensive and drove the Russians back into their own country. It was a bitter blow to the Allies for it involved the postponement of their main attack and the lengthening of the war. For Russia it was a season of great peril and much suffering and it required the whole fortitude of the nation to carry on with resolution and extricate their southern armies from destruction.

Early in the spring the Russian campaign appeared to be going on most favorably to the Allies. Przemysl fell to the Russians on March 22d, and on April 17th Brussilov was within two or three days' march of the Hungarian plains.

In five weeks of fighting in the Carpathians the Russian general Ivanov had captured 30 guns, 200 machine guns and 70,000 prisoners. On April 25th, during the spring thaw, the Austrians developed another counter-attack against the Russians in the mountain valleys. It was a feint to mislead Russia and lead her to believe that they were making an attempt to relieve the pressure on the Carpathian line which might at any moment collapse and allow the invasion of Hungary.

The Germans had kept their secret well. Three-fourths of their winter's accumulation of shells were brought to Cracow and carried out by night to the front lines. Guns of every calibre were transported from all over Germany and concentrated on the German front. In one section of twenty miles over 1,000 cannon were placed in position. Tremendous quantities of engineering supplies, numerous hospitals and food depots were established, and, when all was ready, there was a sudden inflow of troops from the whole of the area occupied by the Central Powers. There never had been such a swift concentration of men and guns in the history of the world and Russia was caught napping. The Grand Duke Nicholas, like every other allied commander, was in absolute ignorance of the gigantic artillery strength which Germany had developed during the winter months.

During April the commands and forces of the Teutonic League had been completely readjusted. The whole of the real attacking force had been placed under Von Mackensen, who had been a lieutenant of Von Hindenburg. His army was the strongest which Germany had ever gathered under a single general. He probably possessed eight of the new divisions of assault which had been created by picking out the finest men in the first line corps.

The total enemy force was estimated to be about 2,000,000 men, and, of these, at least ten corps were under Mackensen, who possessed probably 2,000 guns.

The aim of the Germans was quite clear. The expenditure of a certain quantity of shells would make any position untenable, and consequently, it could be calculated with mathematical accuracy that the Russian armies could be blown out of any position or series of positions which they would attempt to occupy. In consequence Przemysl and Lemberg would be recaptured, the valuable oil fields of Galicia would be retaken and the Hungarian cornfields protected. Rumania would be kept out of the struggle and the ultimate result, if Mackensen proved successful in driving Ivanov out of Galicia, would be the fall of Warsaw and the recovery of the Polish triangle. The immediate hope of the German high command was to put the Russians temporarily out of action. The assault had to be completely successful in order to achieve the object desired, for, if the Russians were driven over the border and split up, renewed action on their part would be impossible for months, and heavy re-enforcements could be transferred from the Russian to the western front.

On the 28th of April Von Mackensen's advance began and the fighting which followed was of the most violent, intricate and determined description. Russia fell back. Being weaker than the enemy it was her business to exhaust the great machine by stretching it out to the greatest possible limit even though hundreds of miles of territory had to be given up in the process. Consequently the Russians retreated, keeping in constant touch with the enemy, fighting rearguard actions, and exhausting the great German reserves of shells and material. The Grand Duke contemplated giving up Przemysl, which had been captured only ten weeks before as well as Lemberg, the first great fruits of Russian victory, and the city of Warsaw, which Germany had already tried in vain to capture on three occasions.

Many engagements occurred during this retreat, which, in size and in the number of casualties sustained were equivalent to large battles.

On May 15th, for example, Ivanov, in a counter-attack, fell upon the Austrians and beat them, the enemy sustaining 30,000 casualties. In another counter-attack on the 9th of May the Russians on a front of one hundred miles cleared the Germans from the Dniester line and drove the enemy back in some places as much as thirty miles. Such effective blows would have compelled a halt in the enemy advance if the Russians had not been too weak in men and material.

The battle of San began on May 15th. By the end of May the Austro-German lines were pressing in on three sides of the defences of Przemysl and on June 2d Von Mackensen entered the city. Though made much of in the press and magnified both by Russia and Germany at the time of its capture, it was but an incident of comparatively small value from a military standpoint.

It was interesting to note that during the German advance the wings of Von Mackensen's army were pushed out beyond the centre and against these the Russians fought numerous actions with signal success; but as soon as the heavy German guns arrived the Russian retreat would again be forced. This necessitated the constant shifting of the main enemy centre of operations, and, while the great machine was getting in order for another movement it would be the function of another Russian army to take the next step in the offensive.

The Russians took their toll of casualties whenever possible. On June 8th part of the great German army got too far away from its railways, guns and munitions, and the mobile Russians, attacking it in a three days' battle drove it across the Dniester with a loss of 15,000 prisoners.

In spite of this continuous fighting and the losses incurred, the German army steadily advanced and on June 22d Lemberg was taken without opposition. The capital of Galicia, after nine months, was once more in Austrian hands. Lemberg was of genuine value for it was the centre of a network of railways, and was a really strong fortress against invasion from the east.

The fall of Lemberg marked the second great stage of the Austro-German offensive. During the seven weeks' campaign the invaders had probably lost in killed, wounded and prisoners nearly half a million men, and a great deal of their store of shells had been used up.

Russia had learned that whenever her troops got in close touch with the enemy she could beat him, but as long as it was a battle of long-range guns she was helpless. The result was that Russia, appreciating her deficiencies, made desperate efforts to organize her industries for the purpose of manufacturing shells, guns and other war material. For most of her munitions she had depended on foreign imports from her Allies and America. At that very moment Great Britain and France, realizing Russia's need, were struggling to open the passage through the Dardanelles, an opening that would permit of the entrance of guns, shells, equipment and other necessities into Russia, and permit Russian wheat, food and other needed raw materials to be brought out.

THE DARDANELLES

The Turks were a martial people and from the outset the Sultans of Constantinople realized that the defence of their capital and the existence of their empire depended on their security against naval attacks. It was of importance to bar the western entrance of the Sea of Marmora and the Turks had no sooner occupied Gallipoli than they began to fortify the Dardanelles.

The Dardanelles channel between the Sea of Marmora and the Mediterranean separates Turkey in Europe from Asia Minor, and was designed by nature as a magnificent protection to the capital of the Bosporus against any naval incursion from the south.

The strategic value of forcing the Dardanelles in a war with Turkey was clear beyond all doubt. The method adopted was foredoomed to failure.

The history of Britain is sown with the failures of divergent operations. A divergent operation is quite different from a subsidiary operation which may be an attempt to destroy some enemy line of communications, make him yield some property of strategic value or induce a neutral nation to make up its mind. A subsidiary operation strictly subserves the main object of the war. A divergent operation, on the contrary, has no relation to the main effort except that it is directed against the same enemy.

Success in a divergent operation is quite consistent with utter failure in the chief campaign, and usually involves some wasting of the forces available in the main theatre of operations, as well as the dissipation of energy and brain power.

A legitimate subsidiary operation may take place in a locality far removed from the main theatre, such as when Wellington wore down the strength of the French in Spain while the big stake was in Central Europe. If the force employed on such an operation is not strong enough to effect the object it is much better left at home. A subsidiary operation must not weaken the main campaign.

The fall of Constantinople would simplify the Russian problem and release troops for Poland and Galicia; in fact, a mere threat to the capital might lead to a revolution in Turkey. The opening of the passage between the Black Sea and the Ægean would give Russia a channel for exporting her accumulated wheat and alter the rate of exchange so strongly against her. It would also provide a passage for the entrance of war munitions and raw materials. It would also have a most important effect upon hesitating neutrals. Italy was still undecided and the downfall of Turkey would impel her to action, while Greece, Rumania and Bulgaria would be greatly influenced and probably come in with the Allies.

Mr. Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, in discussing the strategic purpose of the Dardanelles expedition said:

> You must not forget the prize for which you are contending, the army of Sir Ian Hamilton and the fleet of Admiral De Robeck are separated only by a few miles from a victory such as this war has not yet seen . . . I am speaking of victory in the sense of a brilliant and formidable fact shaping the destinies of nations and shortening the duration of the war. Beyond those few miles of ridge and scrub on which our soldiers are now battling lies the downfall of a hostile empire . . . the fall of a world-famous capital and probably the accession of powerful Allies . . . there never was a great subsidiary operation of war in which a more complete harmony of strategic, political and economic advantages had combined, or which stood in truer relation to the main decision which is in the central theatre. From the narrows of the Dardanelles and across the ridges of the Gallipoli peninsula lie some of the shortest paths to a triumphant peace.

On November 3, 1914, the combined French and British squadrons bombarded the entrance forts of the Dardanelles at long range. On December 13th a submarine entered the straits and torpedoed a Turkish warship guarding the mine fields, but nothing in earnest was done until the 19th of February, 1915. From the 19th of February to the 18th of March the attacks of the warships represented an attempt to destroy the defences of the Dardanelles and force a passage into the Sea of Marmora by naval power alone. Such an attempt was opposed by a very high naval authority while certain other naval authorities approved of it.

The long-range guns and high explosives of warships have a low trajectory which makes it exceedingly difficult to hit an object like a fort more or less hidden on the tops of hills and defended, as they were, by earthworks and concrete.

The notion was that the outer forts to the entrance of the straits could be silenced by the fire of ships from the open sea, while the attack on the inner forts would be carried on by fire from ships in the Gulf of Saros, firing their shells over the hills of the Gallipoli peninsula, the fire being directed by aeroplanes.

The northern shore of the straits is formed by the Peninsula of Gallipoli, a tongue of land some fifty miles long and varying in width from two to twelve miles. The country is a mass of rocky ridges rising to a height of over seven hundred feet from the sea;

the hills are steep, and there is little cultivation of the soil. There are few villages, and no properly engineered roads, and all the land is covered by dense scrub three to six feet high. The southern shore is also hilly and on both sides the high ground overhangs the sea passage.

The narrows are fourteen miles from the mouth and at this point the straits close in to a width of about three-quarters of a mile. At the narrows, guns placed in position on the water's edge can cross-fire against ships ascending the straits; such ships can also be brought under fire from guns on the top of the narrows. Both sides are lined with batteries and once the entrance is passed all fighting has to be at close range. The channel was obstructed by fixed and floating mines which were allowed to float down with the current and torpedo tubes were mounted in concealed positions on the shores. To force a channel thus defended was practically impossible and could only be carried out by the cooperation of an adequate land army.

The outer forts were silenced after a number of days by the converging fire of the warships standing out to sea, and on February 26th a number of North Sea trawlers set to work to sweep for mines in the entrance.

Then three warships steamed in for a distance of four miles and attacked one of the forts at some distance below the narrows. Nothing serious was attempted on the narrows forts until March 6th, when six warships entered the straits and attacked the forts on both sides, just below the narrows, while the main attack was being delivered by the *Queen Elizabeth* and *Agamemnon* lying in the Gulf of Saros on the other side of the Gallipoli Peninsula. On March 7th the attack was renewed both from within the narrows and from the outer sea, but the great effort was made on the 18th of March when practically all of the combined fleet attacked the various forts which had not been silenced. On this occasion the *Bouvet*, *Irresistible*, and the *Ocean* were struck by drifting mines and sunk, while the *Gaulois* and *Inflexible* were also struck and seriously injured. The Allies lost three battleships and more than 2,000 men, while the forts still remained in action. Thereafter the naval attack was not pushed, because the attempt had proved to the most optimistic that ships alone could never force such a passage, and plans were made for a land attack, to be gallantly attempted later by the British and French forces including the Australian and New Zealand army corps.

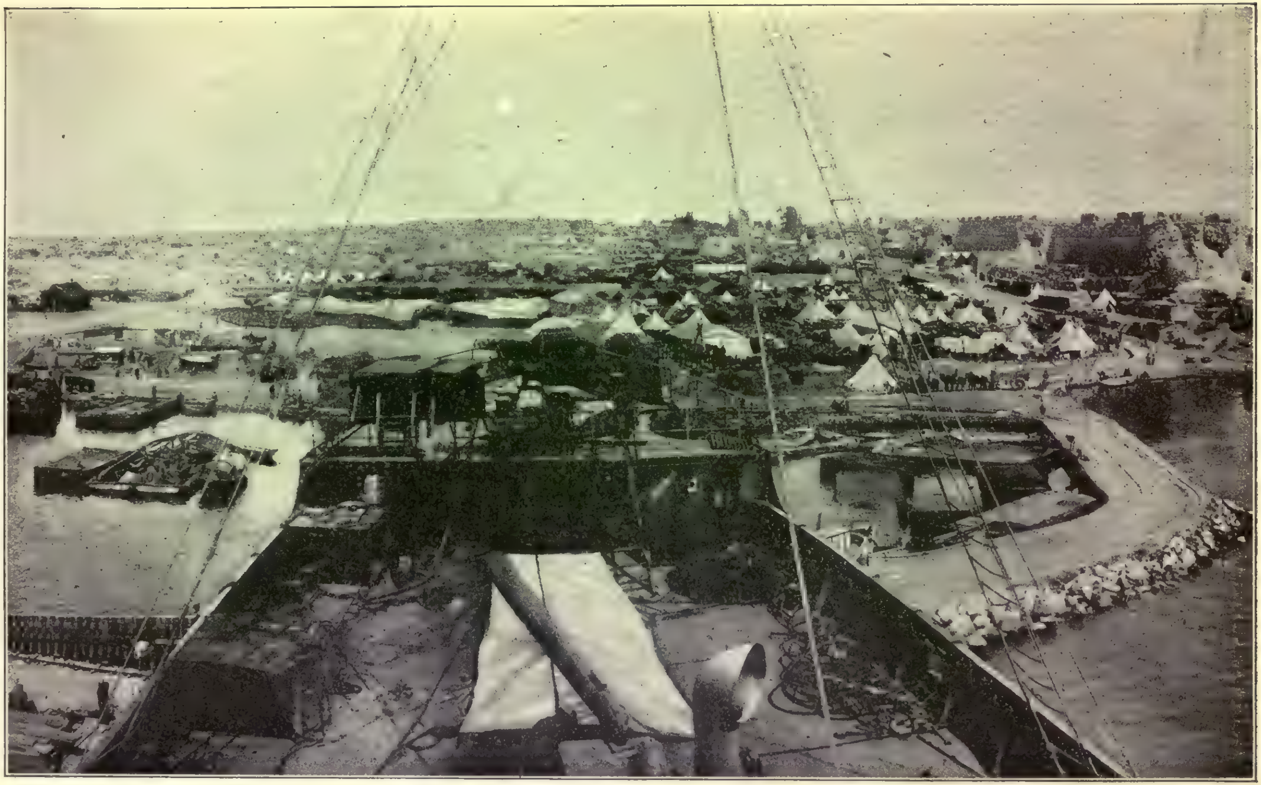
MILITARY METHODS

Strategically, all the German preconceptions about enveloping movements died a sudden death with the opening of trench warfare. In general, nothing revolutionary, or at variance with the accepted practices of war, had occurred. The doctrine as to the crushing effect of artillery against fort and field positions had proved itself. The German practice of massed infantry attacks had little to recommend it and succeeded only when artillery preparation had dissipated all opposition. It was a device necessary where armies had to absorb into their ranks raw and inferior fighting material.

The German success with artillery was not their tactical handling of it but their ample supply. The German staff saw exactly what part modern science must play in warfare, and they kept their eyes resolutely fixed upon it; and, as Germany was organized industrially, she exerted her full national strength in maintaining her supremacy. Germany introduced poison gas and liquid fire which proved to be successful for the moment but failed eventually. These inventions seemed the devices of a ferocious and merciless people and for that reason inspired tremendous feeling against the German people. They proved to be boomerangs which later on returned to strike down those who originated them.

The Allies on the whole were satisfied that their theories of war had been justified. Their belief in a high standard of rifle fire and attack in open order had proved to be successful where enemy guns had permitted of fighting at close quarters. Man for man it had been demonstrated beyond all question that the average Russian, Belgian, Frenchman and Briton was superior to the German soldier. It was not altogether a question of courage but rather one of dash, fortitude, stamina and initiative which gave the Allies that temperamental superiority. This was shown most clearly in aerial work and bayonet work where the individual qualities of the Allies were most conspicuous.

The question of numbers was most vital and it was clear that if Germany could not win in the first year of war she was doomed



THE ILL-FATED DARDANELLES EXPEDITION

The encampment at Seddul Bahr as seen during the occupation of Gallipoli, from the bridge of the historic troopship *River Clyde*.

to defeat. As the Allies increased she would decrease, and it became apparent that she could not possibly hold her position indefinitely in spite of her temporary superiority in guns and shells.

The naval position was wholly in favour of the Allies. German merchantmen and German ships of war had disappeared from the seas. The German success at the battle of Coronel had been quickly redeemed by the destruction of the German fleet at the Falkland Islands. The battle of the Bight of Helgoland had showed that the British navy could still carry on war inside German territorial waters. The submarine campaign had affected little of military purpose except the withdrawal of the larger British battleships from the Dardanelles. The British Grand Fleet, without any great battleships firing a shot, had carried out its task; its existence gave security to her commerce and with the aid of the cruiser squadrons kept the enemy inactive.

Month after month these great ships swept the seas, steaming at night without lights, in the storms and the fogs and the blackness of the North Sea winter, perpetually menaced by mines and submarines. There was no glory and nothing to relieve the monotony of their toil; it was something worse than the monotony of peace.

In England no outstanding statesman had appeared. In Greece, Venizelos, a statesman of the first order, was busily engaged reconstructing a new Greece; in France, Delcasse, the wisest Foreign Minister in Europe, was an outstanding figure, but practically no others of the first magnitude had as yet appeared among the Allies. The German leaders, Von Bethman-Hollweg and Von Jagow, were quite ordinary people.

On the military side a few great generals among the Central Powers had appeared. Von Hindenburg had become a popular idol but his sledge-hammer blows were only those carried out by the machine of which he was a part. Among the Allies the Grand Duke Nicholas and General Joffre probably overtopped all others. They possessed the complete confidence of their nations, and were, in a sense, real dictators, having genius for disregarding side issues, determining what was essential and capable of making great sacrifices in a war which had to be fought on the defensive. Both commanders-in-chief possessed brilliant subordinates in men like

Alexeiev, Ivanov and Foch, the latter, even at that time, having claims to be considered the first soldier in Europe.

The war in the first year depended less on the high commands than on subordinate leaders. Trench fighting and artillery combined to render major strategy ineffective so that the burden fell on the junior commands. The higher knowledge and training of the superior officer had seldom an opportunity to display itself. Only in the work of the submarine and aeroplane where men got out of the grip of the "machine" did brains find full scope. The doings of men like Von Weddigen, Max Horton and Nasmith under the sea, and Warneford and Garros in the air will rank with the most brilliant achievements of all time.

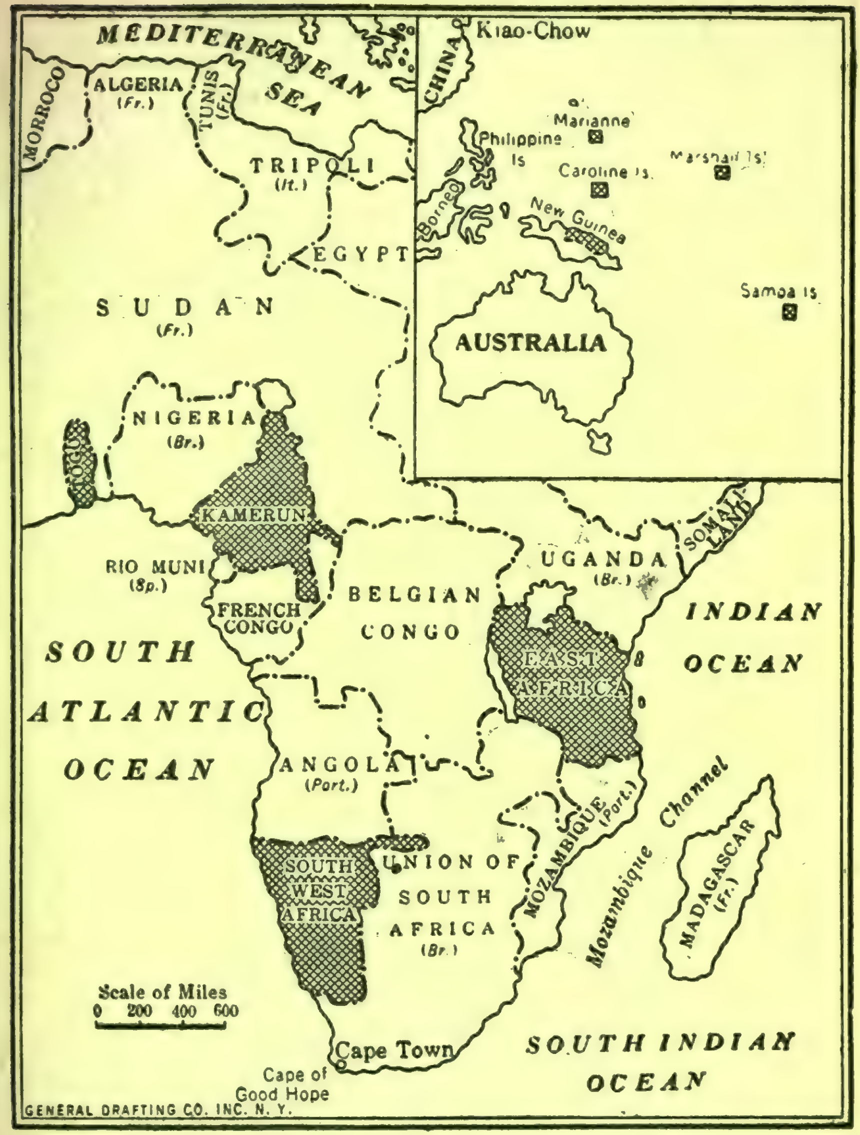
THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA

At the beginning of the war the Government of South Africa had cabled to the Imperial Government offering to undertake the defence of South Africa. The offer was accepted and the Union Defence Force came into being.

As a preliminary to the invasion of Southwest Africa which General Louis Botha, with the approval of the British Government, was about to undertake, martial law was proclaimed throughout South Africa. As a consequence a conspiracy was unearthed at the head of which was Lieutenant-Colonel Maritz, General De Wet and General Beyers, all former Boer leaders, and numbers of conspirators were arrested. Most of the Boers, be it said to their credit, remained loyal.

General Botha attacked and defeated General Beyers at Rustemberg on October 27th, while a small force under General Kemp was routed on November 5th. On November 7th the rebels under General De Wet defeated a small force of loyalists under General Cronje. On November 12th the loyalists under General Botha completely routed the rebel forces of De Wet in a fierce engagement and the insurrection was practically at an end.

The invasion of German Southwest Africa began on January 5, 1915, and proved to be an unqualified success. Everywhere the little invading force was victorious and the German command capitulated in July, 1915, bringing to an end the terrible oppression and massacres of the native Hereros who had been reduced by eighty per cent since 1890.


MEDITERRANEAN SEA
MORROCO
ALGERIA (Fr.)
TUNIS (Fr.)
TRIPOLI (It.)
EGYPT
SUDAN (Fr.)
NIGERIA (Br.)
TOGO
KAMERUN
RIO MUNI (Sp.)
FRENCH CONGO
BELGIAN CONGO
UGANDA (Br.)
SOMALILAND
EAST AFRICA
INDIAN OCEAN
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
ANGOLA (Port.)
MOZAMBIQUE (Port.)
Mozambique Channel
MADAGASCAR (Fr.)
SOUTH WEST AFRICA
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA (Br.)
Cape Town
Cape of Good Hope
SOUTH INDIAN OCEAN
Scale of Miles
0 200 400 600
Kiao-Chow
CHINA
Marianne
Philippine Is
Caroline Is.
Marshall Is.
Borneo
New Guinea
Samoa Is.
AUSTRALIA
GENERAL DRAFTING CO. INC. N. Y.

GERMANY'S LOST COLONIES

In August, 1914, Germany's colonial empire consisted of Togo, Kamerun, Southwest Africa, East Africa, 1,045,289 square miles in Africa; and New Guinea, Carolines, etc., Samoa, Kiao-Chow, 94,826 square miles elsewhere; a total of 1,140,115 square miles.

Togoland, which extends from the north shore of the Gulf of Guinea into the interior, was completely conquered by the end of August, 1914, by combined French and British forces.

The conquest of the Kamerun was more difficult but was complete by June, 1915. The difficulties of this campaign in the jungle and the heat of summer are indescribable.

The toughest of all the fighting in Africa was in German East Africa. The Germans began the offensive in late September, 1914, by attacking Mombasa, the capital of British East Africa and the terminus of the Uganda Railway. The attack was repelled and the offensive passed into the hands of the British who, in November, attacked Tanga and Gassin.

Gassin was taken by the British in January, but the garrison of 300 left there was recaptured by the Germans later on. In early June, 1915, the two British forces united, met the enemy and defeated him with heavy losses on June 22d.

The attempt to capture Tanga by the Anglo-Indian force was a failure. After the conquest of Southwest Africa, General Botha, with the co-operation of Rhodesia, raised a force of 20,000 men for service in East Africa. This force under General Smuts reached Mombasa on February 19, 1916.

The main offensive began on March 7th against the Germans who were defeated at Kalie. After six months of marching and fighting General Smuts's troops, seriously reduced by dysentery, were halted and reorganized in October, 1916, 12,000 blacks taking the place of as many white troops.

In April Belgian troops invaded the northwest part of the German protectorate, while in May a force of Union troops invaded it from the southwest. After seven months of strenuous campaign, two-thirds of German East Africa had been conquered by the combined efforts of the three allied forces.

The enormous distances to be covered, the small bodies of troops available, the almost impossible condition of supply and transport made it difficult to corner the enemy, and the campaign was prolonged through 1917 and 1918. In June, 1917, a new offensive was begun by the Allies and carried on relentlessly. On November 17th one of the two enemy forces remaining was caught. The other escaped into Portuguese territory and only surrendered in Northern Rhodesia on November 14, 1918.

CHAPTER XIII

Canadians Save the Situation at Ypres

Within one hundred and fifty miles of London, in Belgium, lies the bloody salient of Ypres. There, after a few weeks in the trenches near Sailly, the Canadians arrived early in April and took over a section of front between the French and the British. At that time the French filled in a section between the Belgian and British armies.

To a Canadian, fresh from England, the pavé road between Poperinghe and Ypres, as I passed over it for the first time on April 17, 1915, was of the greatest interest. With parties of British soldiers, blue-coated French officers on horseback, despatch riders dashing past on motor cycles, transport wagons, motor ambulance convoys, speeding by with their cargoes of wounded sometimes peering through the back; old women coming from market, children playing on the roadside, great lumbering lorries and officers in swift touring cars, it seemed like a moving picture specially staged for a modern audience. Every bit of transport, every soldier, every pound of food, every shell and gun and every other necessity for the army in the salient had to pass over that broad straight highway flanked by tall naked trees and intersected by trenches and wire entanglements. The country-side was as flat as a board and the roadside ditches brimming over with water made it impossible to dig proper trenches in the wet and soggy ground.

PERSONAL IMPRESSIONS OF YPRES

The city of Ypres with its houses of white stucco and red brick was clean and interesting. In the twelfth century it had a population of 200,000 people and had been not only one of the most powerful cities in Flanders, but a city richer, larger and more influential than London at that time. Though originally well fortified the fortifications had long ago been dismantled. The population had decreased to 20,000 and, with the exception of a few magnificent buildings like the glorious old Cloth Hall and the Church of St. Martin's, its ancient glory had disappeared.

To a Canadian this beautiful Cloth Hall of Ypres, with its graceful turrets, its square tower and its carved archways, even in ruin was something never to be forgotten. The roof had disappeared, the wonderful carved walls and statues had been smashed, and the interior woodwork, containing the famous painted panels, had been destroyed by incendiary shells.

The city of Ypres was the centre or hub of the Ypres salient which curved about it in the form of a semi-circle. Tens of thousands of British and French troops had already laid down their lives in its defence, for it was the gateway to the ports on the English Channel.

The severest fighting of the war had taken place in the previous autumn along this line, and the desperate nature of the struggle in the first battle of Ypres had never been exceeded in the history of British arms.

It will be remembered that the Canadian division at that time was under the command of General Alderson, a Britisher, and the staff included several highly-trained British staff officers. Nevertheless the commands were practically all in the hands of Canadians,—lawyers, business men, real estate agents, newspaper men and other amateur soldiers, who, in civilian life, as officers in the Canadian militia, had spent more or less time in the study of the theory of warfare. These amateur soldiers were faced by armies whose officers and men were professionals in the art and science of warfare and regarded themselves as invincible.

On April 22, 1915, the writer visited the Ypres salient for the second time.

On that April day the very essence of spring was in the air; the hedges of northern France were beginning to whiten with bloom, and the wild flowers were thick in the forest of Nieppe near Merville. It was the time back in Canada when the spring feeling suddenly gets into the blood, when one throws work to the winds and takes to the woods in search of the first violets.

It was quite evident to me, as I retraversed the streets of Ypres, that it had been heavily shelled since I had been there a few days before. Many more houses had been smashed, unmended shell holes were seen in the roads and the Cloth Hall showed further evidences of shell fire. Scarcely a soldier was visible. We studied maps of the salient to learn the topography and saw where the French right joined up with the left of the Third brigade of Canadians and where the right of the Second Canadian brigade linked up with the British.

WHERE NO BIRDS SANG

Passing through Ypres we drove on to Wieltze, intending to walk into the salient to see that desolate, dreary, shell-shattered area where no birds sang. As we walked to the edge of the village, where we had left the car, we noticed a peasant planting seeds in the garden in front of his little house. The earth had all been dug and raked smooth by a boy and a couple of children. To our "How do you do," he replied: "It is a fine day," looking up at the sun with evident satisfaction.

As we tramped along towards St. Julien our attention was attracted to clouds of greenish-yellow smoke ascending from the part of the line occupied by the French. We wondered what the smoke could be coming from in such volume close to the firing line. We seated ourselves on a disused trench and looked about us. An aeroplane flying low overhead dropped some fireballs which seemed to be the signal for the beginning of a violent artillery bombardment. Rising along the French line we could see this yellowish-green cloud ascending on a front of at least three miles and drifting, at a height of perhaps a hundred feet, towards us.

"That must be the poison gas we have heard vague rumours about," I remarked. The gas rose in great thick clouds as if it had been projected from nozzles, expanding as it ascended. Here and there brown clouds seemed to be mixed with the general yellowish-green ones.

"It looks like chlorine," I said, and the captain agreed that it probably was.

The cannonade increased in intensity. About five minutes after it began a hoarse whistle, increasing to a roar like that of a railroad train, passed overhead.

"For Ypres!" we ejaculated, and looking back we saw a cloud as big as a church rise up from that ill-fated city, followed by the sound of the explosion of a fifteen-inch shell. Thereafter those great shells succeeded one another at regular intervals, the sound of each crash following the great black cloud in Ypres. The bombardment continued to grow in volume. In a field not two hundred yards away numerous "coal boxes" exploded, throwing up columns of mud and water like so many geysers. Shells of various calibres, whistling and screaming, flew over our heads from German batteries as well as from our own batteries replying to them. The air seemed to be full of shells flying in all directions. The gas cloud gradually grew less dense, but the bombardment redoubled in violence as battery after battery joined in the angry chorus.

Across the fields we could see guns drawn by galloping horses taking up new positions. One gun we saw unlimbered not three hundred yards from us, when within two minutes a German shell exploded, apparently not twenty feet away from it, and the gun was quickly moved to another position.

Occasionally we thought that we could hear heavy rifle fire and machine-gun fire, but the din was too great to distinguish much detail. The expression commonly used at the front—"Hell let loose"—was the only term at all descriptive of the scene.

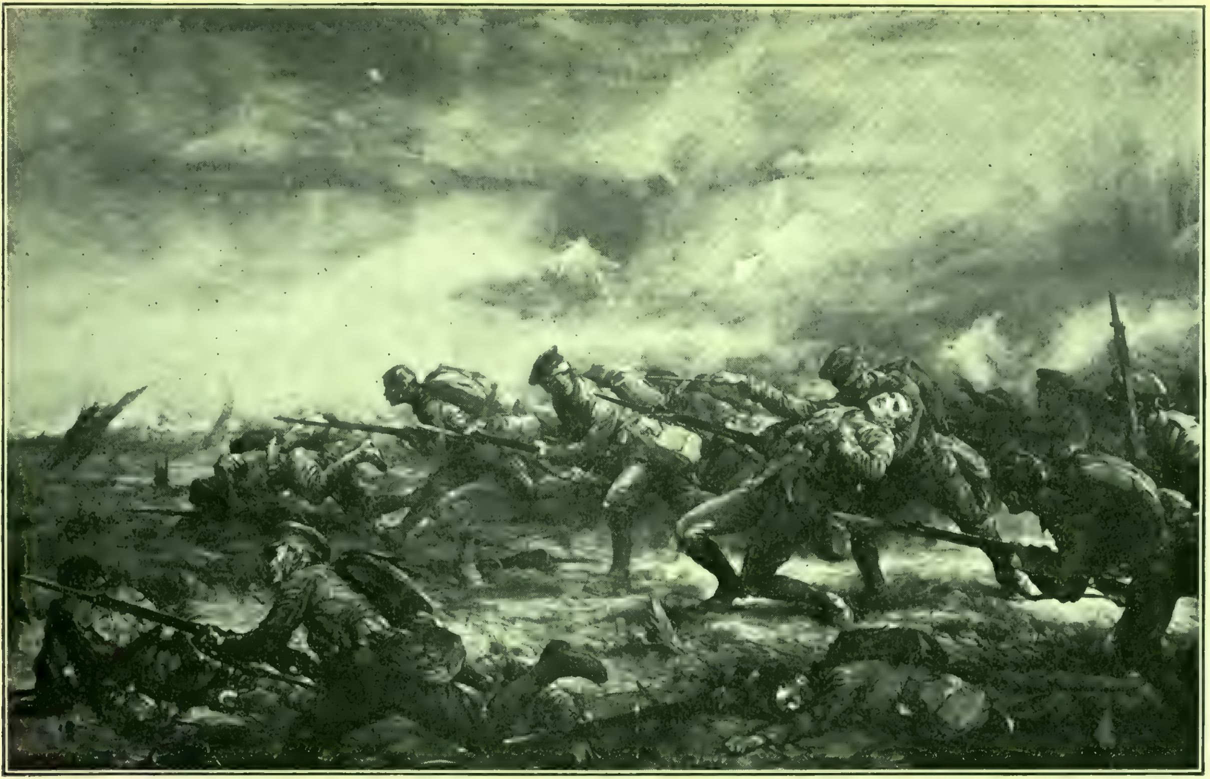
CHLORINE GAS

By this time our eyes had begun to run water and become bloodshot. The fumes of the gas had reached us, irritated our throats and lungs and made us cough. We decided that this gas was chiefly chlorine, with perhaps an admixture of bromine, but that there was probably something else present responsible for the irritation to our eyes.

The Canadian artillery had evidently received a message to support, for down to our right the crash of our field guns along the hedges added to the uproar. Along the road from St. Julien came a small party of zouaves with their baggy trousers and red fez caps. We stepped out to speak to them and found that they belonged to the French Red Cross. They had been driven out of their dressing station by the poison gas and complained bitterly of the effect of it on their lungs. Shortly afterwards the first wounded Canadian appeared—a Highlander, swathed in white bandages, sitting on a little donkey cart driven by a peasant.

We could scarcely credit what followed.

Coming across the fields towards us we saw men running,



THE CHARGE OF THE FOURTH CANADIAN BATTALION AT YPRES IN THE FACE OF A MURDEROUS GERMAN SHELL FIRE

During one of the most terrible and deadly engagements of the whole war, when a powerful German outflanking movement was being rapidly developed, the Fourth Canadian Battalion, to save the day, forced a counter-attack in the face of a withering fire. Lieutenant-Colonel Birchall, leading his men, fell dead at the moment when it seemed that the attack could not succeed. With a cry of anger, the attack was renewed, the German trenches were taken, and the day was saved.

dropping flat on their faces, dodging into disused trenches and keeping every possible bit of shelter between themselves and the enemy while they ran. As they came closer we could see that they were French Moroccan troops, badly frightened. Some of them lay down in a nearby trench and lit cigarettes, only to start up in terror to run on again. Some of them even threw away their equipment after they had passed us. It was now quite evident to us that the Moroccan troops had given way before the gas attack.

CANADIANS BLOCK THE ROAD TO CALAIS

Then our hearts swelled with the pride of race that so seldom comes to a man, for along the road from Ypres came a platoon of soldiers, marching rapidly. They were Canadians, and we knew that our reserve brigade was even now on the way to make the attempt to block the road to Calais so much desired by the German high command.

Bullets began to spit up the dust around us and about six-thirty we turned back towards Wieltze.

Canadian soldiers with boxes of cartridges on their shoulders ran up the road towards the trenches; others, carrying movable barbed wire entanglements, followed them. A company of Canadians took to the fields, on leaving Wieltze, and began advancing in short rushes towards the German front. Another company was just leaving the village as we entered it, loading their rifles as they hurried along.

As we approached Wieltze we could see ammunition wagons galloping along the road, which forks from Wieltze and runs to Langemarck. Turning into the fields they would wheel sharply, deposit their loads of shell and gallop wildly off again for more ammunition, while the crashes and flashes of the guns showed that they were being served with redoubled vigour.

At the edge of the village the peasant, whom we had seen in the afternoon preparing his little garden, came forward and asked "if Monsieur did not think it would be wiser for the women and children to leave." Behind him were the members of his family, each with bundles suited to their respective ages. The smallest, a girl of about six years of age, had a tiny bundle in a handkerchief; the next, a boy about eight, had a larger one. All were dressed in their best Sunday clothes and carried umbrellas. As we talked to the father, the eldest, a boy of eighteen, came down the path with his grandmother, a little old lady perhaps eighty years of age and weighing about as many pounds. He crouched down, she put her arms around his neck, he took her feet under his arms, and straightening up, he set off with his burden towards Ypres with the rest of the family trailing behind.

Small detachments of Canadian troops moved rapidly through the streets of Wieltze. Around the Canadian advanced dressing station crowds of wounded Turcos and Canadians waited their turn to have their wounds dressed. Villagers were loading their donkeys or dog-carts with household goods and setting out in all haste towards Ypres. Sometimes even their family cow was driven before them. We picked up a load of wounded Turcos and carried them to the ambulance at Ypres. Fresh shell holes pitted the road and dead horses lay at the side of it. Broken stone, pavé and bricks lay scattered about everywhere.

All the while the roar of guns and the whistle of flying shells increased. We reached the ambulance in Ypres between dusk and dark and forced our unwilling Turcos to descend. We had just entered the building when there was a heavy crash in the street outside, followed by the rattling and crash of glass and falling of bricks, while at the same time the piercing shrieks of a woman rang out down the street. In spite of this the surgeons kept on operating as if they were in a hospital in Canada. It is one of the beauties of the army system that each one of the army carries on under all circumstances.

It was too risky to go through the centre of the town on account of falling walls, chimneys and fragments of houses. We, therefore, skirted the town and tried to get down a side road to Vlamertinge. It was choked with refugees and transport and there was no alternative but to drive back through Ypres into the main Ypres-Vlamertinge road. There wagons, with horses whipped into a gallop, began to pass us going the opposite way, and motor transport lorries drove through at full speed. As we cleared the city the traffic became heavier and we gradually worked into, and formed part of, a great human stream with various eddies and back-currents.

It was now dark, and but for the feeble light of a young moon, which sometimes broke through the clouds and faintly illuminated the road, nothing could be seen. All headlights were out and not even the light of a hand-lantern or flash light was permitted by the military police. Yet one's eyes became accustomed to the dark, and, when the pale moonlight came through, we could dimly see over on our right a line of French-Turcos moving like ghosts along towards Vlamertinge. Next them were fleeing refugees with their bundles, wagons and pushcarts, and their animals being driven before them. If there were a cart the old man or old lady would invariably be seated on the top of the load, sometimes holding the baby. In the centre of the road we groped our way along with infinite care. A shadow would sometimes bear down on the car and suddenly swerve to one side as a horseman trotted by. A motor lorry would approach within a few feet of us before the drivers could see and stop before crashing into each other. On the left were troops "standing to" all along the roadside. We felt very proud when we realized that they were Canadians and that they were the only troops at hand to plug the gap made by the German poison gases.

At one time the road became jammed and we had visions of staying all night under fire in the midst of a road block. Gradually, with the aid of mounted gendarmes and our military police, the mass, composed of cows, wagons, horses, dogcarts, men, women and children with hand wagons and baby carriages, motor lorries, horse transport, lumber wagons, motor cycles, touring cars and mounted horsemen, was dissolved and slowly began again to flow in both directions.

Looking backward we could see the red glow of fires burning in different parts of Ypres and the bright flashes of shells as they burst over that much German-hated city. All around the salient star-shells flared into the sky and remained suspended for a few minutes as they threw a white glare over the surrounding country, silhouetting the trees against the sky like ghosts before they died away and fell to earth.

At last we reached Vlamertinge and entered the building occupied by the Canadian field ambulance. Lying on the floors were scores of soldiers with faces of a blue or ghastly green colour, choking, vomiting and gasping for air in their struggles with death. The faint odor of chlorine gas hung about the place. These were some of our own Canadians who had been poisoned, and I felt, as I stood and watched them in agony that the nation, which had planned in cold-blood the use of such a foul method of warfare, should not be allowed to exist as a nation among nations, but should be taken and choked in turn until in humbleness and on bended knees it, too, craved for mercy.

At midnight we arrived home, gray and ghastly from the effects of our experience with the poison gas and its consequences upon our men.

THE BATTLE IN DETAIL

Before the battle the English and Canadians held the line from Broodseinde to a point half a mile north of St. Julien on the crest of the Grafenstafel Ridge. The French prolonged this line to Steenstraate on the Yperlee Canal. The Canadian division held a line extending about five miles from the Ypres-Roulers railway to the Ypres-Poelcapelle Road. The division in the front line consisted of two brigades of infantry and the artillery brigades.

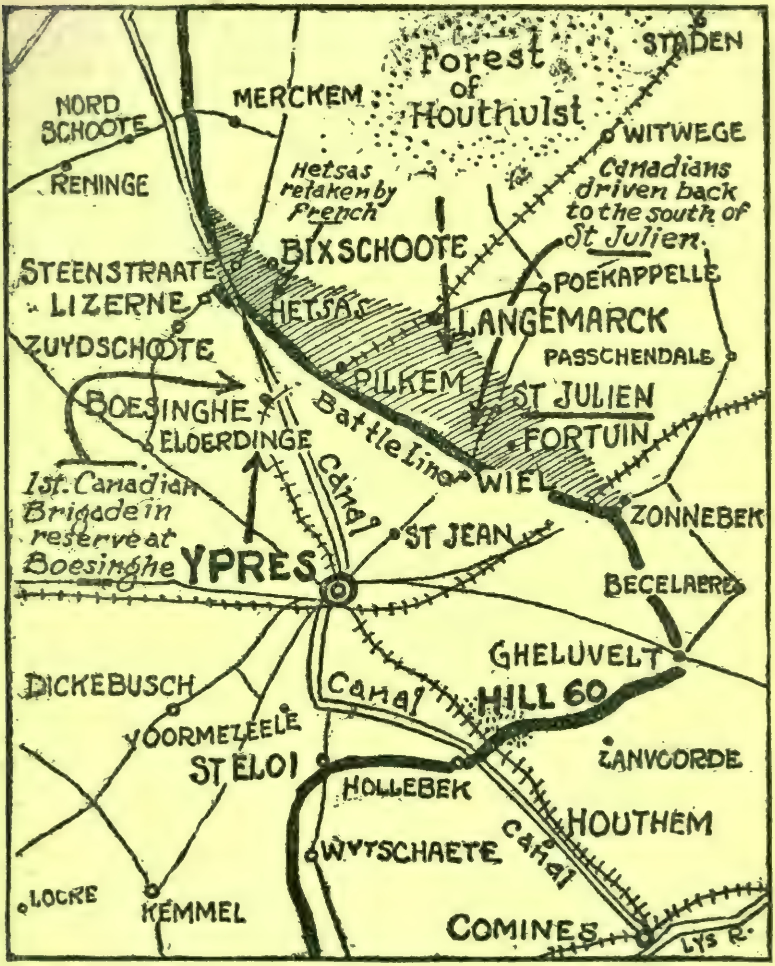
About five o'clock the asphyxiating gas, which proved to be chlorine, was projected from a large number of cylinders brought into the German front line trenches, and was carried by a gentle wind over the Canadian and French lines. The native French soldiers sustained the brunt of the gas attack and gave way all along the line. The consequence was that the Canadian line remained with its left flank exposed in the air. The Third or Highland brigade under Brigadier-General Turner, on the left, was to some extent disorganized by the gas, but the men held firm.

As the German line pressed forward through the gap left by the retreating French it was necessary for the Third brigade to swing around to the south to prevent envelopment.

It was not possible to throw the First infantry brigade, in reserve, into the line at a moment's notice, and the enemy, advancing rapidly, reached St. Julien two miles in the rear of the original French line.

In the initial rush made through the breach four British guns loaned to the French were captured.

A counter-attack, made after midnight on April 22d-23d by the Tenth and Sixteenth battalions, recaptured these guns, but it was found that they had been destroyed. The Third infantry brigade was shortly re-enforced by the Second, Third, Seventh and Tenth battalions. All night long a battle of the most violent nature raged, in which the Germans made frequent assaults upon the Canadian positions. It seemed impossible that Canadian civilian soldiers, fighting under such adverse conditions, could possibly maintain a prolonged resistance.


Forest of Houthulst
STADEN
NORD SCHOOTE
MERCKEM
WITWEGE
RENINGE
Hetsas retaken by French
Canadians driven back to the south of St Julien.
BIXSCHOOTE
STEENSTRAATE
LIZERNE
HETSAS
POEKAPPELLE
LANGEMARCK
ZUYDSCHOOTE
PASSCHENDALE
PILKEM
ST JULIEN
BOESINGHE
Battle Line
ELOERDINGE
FORTUIN
Canal
WIEL
1st. Canadian Brigade in reserve at Boesinghe
ST JEAN
ZONNEBEK
YPRES
BECELAERE
GHELUVELT
DICKEBUSCH
Canal
HILL 60
VOORMEZEELE
ZANVOORDE
ST ELOI
HOLLEBEK
HOUTHEM
WYTSCHAETE
Canal
LOCRE
KEMMEL
COMINES
LYS R.

WHERE THE GERMANS DELIVERED THEIR FIRST GAS ATTACK IN 1915

Early Friday morning further reinforcements, consisting of British troops under Colonel Geddes of the Buffs, arrived and this force, which became known as "Geddes's Detachment" played a remarkable part in the struggle which followed.

At dawn on Friday the Second Canadian brigade still held its positions, but the Third Canadian brigade, as stated, had swung back upon St. Julien. At this time the Germans made a powerful attempt to outflank the Third brigade, and, to afford relief, a counter-attack by the First and Fourth Canadian battalions was made upon the first line German trenches.

This remarkable attack was pushed home in broad daylight in the face of a heavy frontal fire into the open gap created by the retreat. It was made in the face of tremendously superior forces of men and guns, and its very boldness,—for it was practically unsupported by reserves,—made for its success.

In the face of a terrific opposition the German trenches were won back and held until Sunday night when the remnants of these shattered but victorious battalions were relieved by fresh troops.

Another gas cloud was projected on Friday morning at dawn upon both the Second and Third brigades without material result. The Canadians had by this time realized that it was best to face the gas cloud. It was discovered that breathing through a double handful of moist earth, or a wet handkerchief, absorbed a great deal of the gas, and nullified to a considerable extent its poisonous effects.

During that night it appeared that several German divisions attempted to drive back the Third brigade and envelop its left wing. This enveloping movement succeeded to some extent; a certain number of Germans managed to get between the wood and St. Julien, apparently for the purpose of isolating the brigade from its base. Though vastly outnumbered and wearied almost beyond endurance, the Canadian Highlanders of the Third brigade hung on and maintained their position. Many were the deeds of gallantry accomplished that day, enough, indeed, for a chapter in itself.

By all the rules of war the Third Canadian brigade was surrounded and should have fallen back, but they held the position and thereby once more dislocated German psychology and German calculations, which could not conceive of men holding such an apparently impossible position without assurance of adequate support. It was only when the artillery fire became so intense as to render the trenches untenable that the Canadians, contesting every yard, fell back until the point of the salient had fallen in to St. Julien.

On Friday afternoon the Second King's Own Scottish Borderers and the First Royal West Kents reinforced the Canadian left and the French attacking from the canal bank much farther to the left gave assistance in relieving the pressure.

St. Julien itself became untenable and a farther retreat of the Third brigade was ordered. This left the Second brigade, then commanded by Brigadier-General Currie, in exactly the same position which the Third Brigade had been in, and the same tactical manœuvre of swinging around the left flank to conform to the movement of the Third brigade was adopted.

General Currie had held his trenches from Thursday afternoon till Sunday afternoon at which time, even, they were not abandoned. They had been obliterated. In the interval the left flank of the Second brigade was held by the Eighth battalion of Winnipeg under Colonel Lipsett, and though at one time driven from the trenches by a discharge of gas the "Little Black Devils" counter-attacked and recaptured their trenches.

At this time two British regiments, the Eighth Durham light infantry and the First Hampshires, filled in the gap between the Second Canadian brigade and the Twenty-eighth division.

On Sunday the situation was such that it became necessary to make an offensive as the surest way of stopping the enemy advance. General Alderson therefore ordered an attack by two British brigades, the Tenth and Northumberlands, which had been brought up in support. Sweeping through the Canadian lines they gave ringing cheers for our men, the first intimation that the Canadian efforts were being appreciated by the British soldier. The attack succeeded and the German advance for the time was stayed.

On Monday morning the two Canadian brigades were relieved by the British and went into reserve. It became necessary, however, to again call upon the Second brigade and General Currie marched his men, sadly reduced in strength, to the apex of the line which they held throughout the day. On Tuesday the brigade was again in reserve and on Wednesday went into billets.

On May 4th General Alderson handed over the command of this section of front to the Fourth British division and removed his headquarters to Nieppe.

Such is a brief naked account of the Canadian fight of St. Julien. No kind of description can give a picture of the terrible conditions which our men were up against during those eventful days.

Without adequate artillery support, and overwhelmed with shrapnel and high explosives which pulverized our trenches, the Canadians hung on. Groups of men, isolated in sections of trench or in shell holes, gathered up the rifles of the dead and carried on rapid fire until they almost dropped from fatigue. In some places platoons were reduced to six and seven men, who, without officers or even non-commissioned officers, carried on the battle.

The Canadians to a man seemed obsessed with the idea that this was their particular battle and that they would perish where they stood rather than give way. It seemed as if the "Canadian clodhoppers," as the Germans had contemptuously called them, were in honour bound to stop that great German rush for the Channel. Only when full details are available, and the individual diaries and records of officers and units have been tabulated and compared, will the full story of the battle called "St. Julien" be made known to the Canadian people.

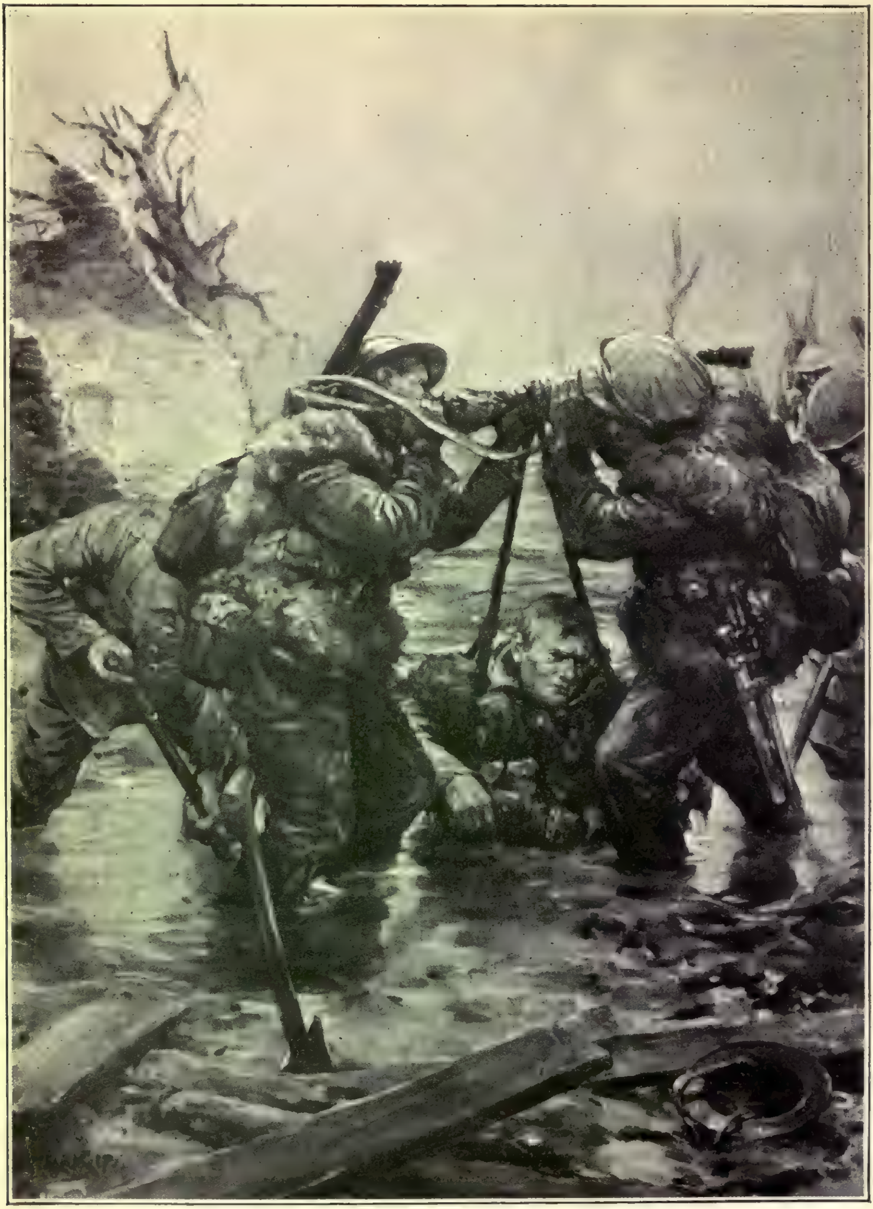
The Canadians had proved themselves beyond all question and, in the words of General French, had saved the situation.

Sir John French in his despatch said:

> In spite of the danger to which they were exposed the Canadians held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage, and it is not too much to say that the bearing and conduct of these splendid troops averted a disaster which might have been attended with the most serious consequences.

It seemed an extraordinary thing that the Germans did not pour through the great gap which they had made that first night for there was little there to stop them. The passage which they so earnestly desired through the British lines to the Channel lay wide open before them. As in other cases they seemed to be unable to fully realize the situation and take advantage of it. They broke a great piece out of the line, but they did not know what to do when they had broken it.

The effect of the Canadian success was immediate both in



IN THE SLOUGH OF THE SOMME
Rescuing a comrade from a shell-hole.

France and in England. The Colonials had made good and were fitted to take their place by the side of the finest British and French fighting divisions. Everywhere throughout France the word "Canada" was greeted with enthusiasm and the work of the division was appreciated at its fullest value.

The Canadian division had sustained 6,000 casualties. The men and officers as they appeared in billets afterwards were so changed in appearance that some of them were difficult to recognize. They were very tired and could recall only a succession of blurred impressions of great noise, ferocious fighting and terrible excitement.

The losses of individual battalions were very heavy, a typical example being the First battalion which lost 400 out of a total of 800 men during one six-hundred-yard advance.

The effect of the battle of Ypres was immediately felt in all its significance throughout the Dominion. The high proportion of casualties, the nature of the enemy attack and the quality of the enemy troops combined to make this battle the most important feat of arms which had ever taken place in Canada's history.

In the great contest of world powers the men of the young colony had shown their ability to take their place with the finest that the world could produce. Twenty thousand Canadians with eight months' training had, under conditions which were unique, held their own. Smothered with clouds of poisonous gas, outflanked, and with few reserves to support them, the Canadian troops held their own for days against the most highly trained troops of Europe.

It was a great shock to the Canadian public when it was realized that over 6,000 of a division composed of 20,000 men were casualties. For the first time the terrible nature of modern warfare was fully comprehended. It was the first personal experience of young Canada and, like all great first experiences, it left an indelible impression. Every Canadian, however, experienced a pride which was something new. In the test of battle, perhaps one of the greatest tests of manhood, Canadian men had made good; they had proved superior to troops whose lifelong training had been war, and who were equipped with every known engine of destruction in unlimited quantities. It was a strange mixture of pride, sorrow and determination to carry on to the limit of our resources which comprised the dominant feeling of the Canadian people at that time. Everywhere flags were flown at half-mast and memorial services held throughout the country for the men, who, enduring untold privations and suffering, had paid the great price for the freedom of Canadians and the world.

Great Britain also paid her tribute, and a memorial service was held in St. Paul's on May 2d for the Canadians who had laid down their lives at Ypres. The clergy officiating were the Bishop of London, the Dean of St. Paul's, the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Chaplain General of the Forces.

Representatives of the whole empire gathered at that service which began by the massed bands playing the Dead March. It was followed by a most eloquent tribute by the Bishop of London who said: "It was on that tremendous day when the French and British had been overpowered by poison gas that the manhood of Canada shone out like pure gold; the example of these men will never die but will remain as a perpetual inspiration to their successors."

The following is the text of the speech made to the Canadian troops under his command, after twelve strenuous days and nights of fighting, from April 23d to May 4th, 1915, by Lieutenant-General E. A. H. Alderson, C.B., commanding the Canadian corps:

> I tell you truly that my heart is so full that I hardly know how to speak to you. It is full of two feelings—the first being sorrow for the loss of those comrades of ours who have gone; and the second, pride in what the First Canadian division has done.
>
> As regards our comrades who have lost their lives—let us speak of them with our caps off—my faith in the Almighty is such that I am perfectly sure that when men die, as they have died, doing their duty and fighting for their country, for the empire, and to save the situation for others,—in fact, have died for their friends—no matter what their past lives have been, no matter what they have done that they ought not to have done (as all of us do), I am perfectly sure that the Almighty takes them and looks after them at once. Lads, we cannot leave them better than like that.
>
> Now I feel that we may, without any false pride, think a little of what the division has done during the past few days.
>
> I would, first of all, tell you that I have never been so proud of anything in my life as I am of my armlet with "Canada" on it. I thank you, and congratulate you from the bottom of my heart, for the part each one of you has taken in giving me this feeling of pride.

I think it is possible that all of you do not quite realize that, if we had retired on the evening of April 22d—when our Allies fell back before the gas and left our left flank quite open—the whole of the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-eighth divisions would probably have been cut off. Certainly they would not have got away a gun or a vehicle of any sort, and probably not more than half the infantry would have escaped.

This is what our commander-in-chief meant when he telegraphed, as he did, that "the Canadians saved the situation." My lads, if ever men had a right to be proud in this world, you have.

I know my military history pretty well, and I cannot think of an instance, especially when the cleverness and determination of the enemy is taken into account, in which troops were placed in such a difficult position; nor can I think of an instance in which so much depended on the standing fast of one division.

You will remember that the last time I spoke to you, just before you went into the trenches at Sailly, now over two months ago, I told you about my old regiment—the Royal West Kents—having gained a reputation for never budging from their trenches, no matter how they were attacked. I said then I was quite sure that, in a short time, the army out here would be saying the same of you.

I little thought—none of us thought—how soon those words would come true. But now, today, not only the army out here, but all Canada, all England, and all the empire are saying that you, too, stand fast.

There is one more word I would say to you before I stop. You have made a reputation second to none in this war; but, remember, no man can live on his reputation. You must keep on adding to it. And I feel just as sure that you will do so as I did two months ago when I told you that I knew you would make a reputation when the opportunity came.

I am now going to shake hands with your officers, and as I do so, I want you to feel that I am shaking hands with each one of you, as I would actually do if time permitted.

SIR JOHN FRENCH'S SEVENTH DISPATCH

From the Field-Marshall Commanding-in-Chief, The British Army in France.

To the Secretary of State for War, War Office, London, S. W.

Headquarters, 15th June, 1915.

MY LORD:

I have the honour to report that since the date of my last dispatch (5th April, 1915) the army in France under my command has been heavily engaged opposite both flanks of the line held by the British forces.

I. In the north the town and district of Ypres have once more in this campaign been successfully defended against vigorous and sustained attacks made by large forces of the enemy, and supported by a mass of heavy and field artillery, which, not only in number, but also in weight and calibre, is superior to any concentration of guns which has previously assailed that part of the line.

In the south a vigorous offensive has again been taken by troops of the First Army, in the course of which a large area of entrenched and fortified ground has been captured from the enemy, whilst valuable support has been afforded to the attack which our Allies have carried on with such marked success against the enemy's positions to the east of Arras and Lens.

II. I much regret that during the period under report the fighting has been characterized on the enemy's side by a cynical and barbarous disregard of the well-known usages of civilized war and a flagrant defiance of the Hague Convention.

All the scientific resources of Germany have apparently been brought into play to produce a gas of so virulent and poisonous a nature that any human being brought into contact with it is first paralysed and then meets with a lingering and agonizing death.

The enemy has invariably preceded, prepared, and supported his attacks by a discharge in stupendous volume of these poisonous gas fumes whenever the wind was favourable.

Such weather conditions have only prevailed to any extent in the neighbourhood of Ypres, and there can be no doubt that the effect of these poisonous fumes materially influenced the operations in that theatre, until experience suggested effective counter-measures, which have since been so perfected as to render them innocuous.

The brain power and thought which has evidently been at work before this unworthy method of making war reached the pitch of efficiency which has been demonstrated in its practice shows that the Germans must have harboured these designs for a long time.

As a soldier I cannot help expressing the deepest regret and some surprise that an army which hitherto has claimed to be the chief exponent of the chivalry of war should have stooped to employ such devices against brave and gallant foes. . . .

It was at the commencement of the second battle of Ypres on the evening of the 22d April, referred to in paragraph I of this report, that the enemy first made use of asphyxiating gas.

Some days previously I had complied with General Joffre's request to take over the trenches occupied by the French, and on the evening of the 22d the troops holding the lines east of Ypres were posted as follows:

"From Steenstraate to the east of Langemarck, as far as the Poelcappelle Road, a French division.

"Thence, in a southeasterly direction toward the Passchendaele-Becelaere Road, the Canadian division.

"Thence a division took up the line in a southerly direction east of Zonnebeke to a point west of Becelaere, whence another division continued the line southeast to the northern limit of the corps on its right."

Of the Fifth corps there were four battalions in divisional reserve about Ypres; the Canadian division had one battalion in divisional reserve, and the First Canadian brigade in army reserve. An infantry brigade, which had just been withdrawn after suffering heavy losses on Hill 60, was resting about Vlamertinghe.

Following a heavy bombardment, the enemy attacked the French Division at about 5 P. M., using asphyxiating gases for the first time. Aircraft reported that at about 5 P. M. thick yellow smoke had been seen issuing from the German trenches between Langemarck and Bixschoote. The French reported that two simultaneous attacks had been made east of the Ypres-Staden railway, in which these asphyxiating gases had been employed.

What follows almost defies description. The effect of these poisonous gases was so virulent as to render the whole of the line held by the French division mentioned above practically incapable of any action at all. It was at first impossible for anyone to realize what had actually happened. The smoke and fumes hid everything from sight and hundreds of men were thrown into a comatose or dying condition, and within an hour the whole position had to be abandoned, together with about fifty guns.

I wish particularly to repudiate any idea of attaching the least blame to the French division for this unfortunate incident.

After all the examples our gallant Allies have shown of dogged and tenacious courage in the many trying situations in which they have been placed throughout the course of this campaign it is quite superfluous for me to dwell on this aspect of the incident, and I would only express my firm conviction that, if any troops in the world had been able to hold their trenches in the face of such a treacherous and altogether unexpected onslaught, the French Division would have stood firm.

THE STAND OF THE CANADIANS

The left flank of the Canadian division was thus left dangerously exposed to serious attack in flank, and there appeared to be a prospect of their being overwhelmed and of a successful attempt by the Germans to cut off the British troops occupying the salient to the east.

In spite of the danger to which they were exposed the Canadians held their ground with a magnificent display of tenacity and courage; and it is not too much to say that the bearing and conduct of these splendid troops averted a disaster which might have been attended with the most serious consequences.

They were supported with great promptitude by the reserves of the divisions holding the salient and by a brigade which had been resting in billets.

Throughout the night the enemy's attacks were repulsed, effective counter-attacks were delivered, and at length touch was gained with the French right, and a new line was formed.

The Second London Heavy Battery, which had been attached to the

Canadian division, was posted behind the right of the French bivision, and, being involved in their retreat, fell into the enemy's hands. It was recaptured by the Canadians in their counter-attack, but the guns could not be withdrawn before the Canadians were again driven back. . . .

In the course of these two or three days many circumstances combined to render the situation east of the Ypres Canal very critical and most difficult to deal with.

The confusion caused by the sudden retirement of the French division, and the necessity for closing up the gap and checking the enemy's advance at all costs, led to a mixing up of units and a sudden shifting of the areas of command, which was quite unavoidable. Fresh units, as they came up from the south, had to be pushed into the firing line in an area swept by artillery fire which, owing to the capture of the French guns, we were unable to keep down.

All this led to very heavy casualties; and I wish to place on record the deep admiration which I feel for the resource and presence of mind evinced by the leaders actually on the spot.

The parts taken by Major-General Snow and Brigadier-General Hull were reported to me as being particularly marked in this respect.

An instance of this occurred on the afternoon of the 24th when the enemy succeeded in breaking through the line at St. Julien.

Brigadier-General Hull, acting under the orders of Lieutenant-General Alderson, organized a powerful counter-attack with his own brigade and some of the nearest available units. He was called upon to control, with only his brigade staff, parts of battalions from six separate divisions which were quite new to the ground. Although the attack did not succeed in retaking St. Julien, it effectually checked the enemy's further advance.

It was only on the morning of the 25th that the enemy were able to force back the left of the Canadian division from the point where it had originally joined the French line. . . .

CHAPTER XIV

The Battles of Festubert and Givenchy

During the months of April and May, 1915, the French had been carrying on a series of battles along the whole front. In the north the last attack developed into a long-drawn-out struggle in the neighbourhood of Loos and Souchez.

The French had proved victorious in most of these affairs but had run up against an entirely new proposition. The German line had been broken in numerous places, but, instead of giving way, the series of sections isolated proved to be veritable forts bristling with machine guns which could enfilade any troops attempting to get by. Some of these struggles such as those at the cemetery at Ablain, the sugar refinery at Souchez, the White Road and the Labyrinth, were of the most terrible description.

The Labyrinth, to take an example, consisted of a series of surface and underground passages, wired and protected by every ingenious device known. The German burrows were sometimes fifty feet deep, and the struggle, carried on by electric flash lamps in those underground galleries, was more like something evolved in the imagination of a Jules Verne than reality. During this period the Allies began to realize what a powerful weapon the Germans had created by their accumulation of artillery and shells and it was realized that such a machine could only be mastered by a similar machine of superior power.

As an auxiliary effort to support the French in their struggle in the Artois the British began the battle of Aubers Ridge on May 9th. Principally it was designed to detain the German Seventh corps in position and prevent troops from being sent as re-enforcements southward. If it proved successful we would win the Aubers Ridge which would enable us to threaten Lille and La Bassée. The British attack was carried on by the First corps, the Indian corps and the Eighth division; the latter made the chief attack in front of Fromelles. It was an utter failure; the artillery preparation had proved quite insufficient to destroy the wire entanglements and little progress was made, though many deeds of personal bravery and brilliance were rendered possible by its very failure.

One had only to go through the ambulances and hospitals as did the writer during this series of engagements to realize what an impossible proposition our soldiers had been engaged in. They were quite depressed, realizing fully that the artillery support given them was quite inadequate and that they had been sent against impossible positions and mown down by machine guns like wheat.

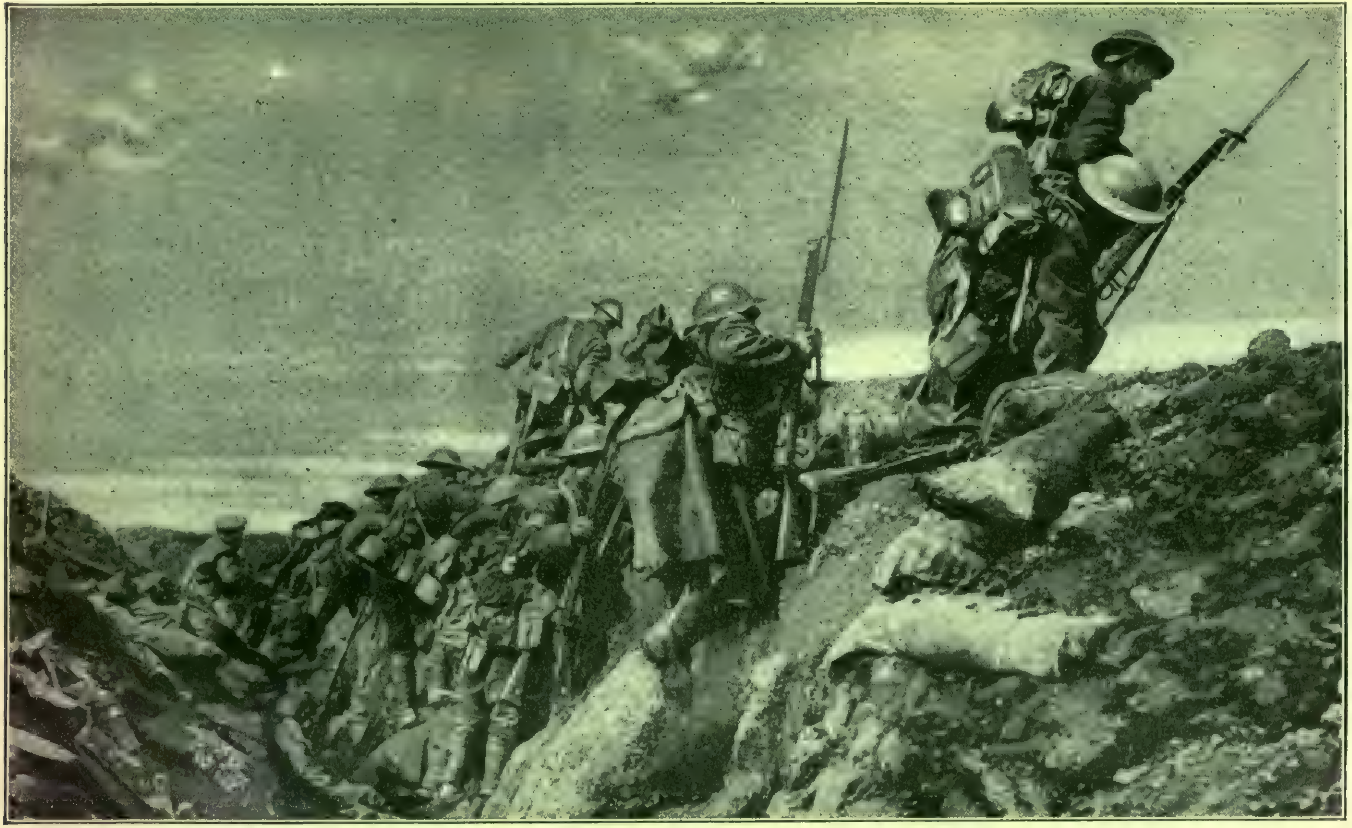
The next attack was on May 16th at Festubert by the Seventh division and Indian corps. The ground chosen was exceedingly difficult, being traversed by numerous ditches and water courses. The struggle continued during the month of May with little gain of ground and with heavy casualties. On May 19th the Second and Third divisions were relieved and their places taken by the Canadian division and the Ninth Territorial Highland division.

The fighting at Festubert, though lacking in military success, was important from the fact that it was responsible for producing political changes in England.

The *Times* correspondent returning from the front reported in the issue of May 14th that the first part of the battle of Festubert had failed through lack of high explosives. The British public, stirred by the heavy casualty lists and the failure of the spring offensives, upon which they had fixed high hopes, set to work to discover what was wrong. As a result it became quite clear to the public that in future the fate of battles must be determined by guns and munitions; therefore there must be no shortage of munitions henceforth on any British front. As a direct result there was a crisis from which emerged the British coalition government. England began to see clearly the difficulties of war and the necessity of organizing her industries. This crisis paved the way for the War Committee, for the Allied Grand-Council-of-War in Paris, and finally for the pooling of all the allied interests and the placing of the allied armies under one supreme command.

After the second battle of Ypres the Canadian division had been re-enforced from the Canadian bases in England and though these re-enforcements had not been trained in trench warfare the division took its place in the trenches on May 18th.

Little time was available for the study of the ground and the



Official Canadian War Records.

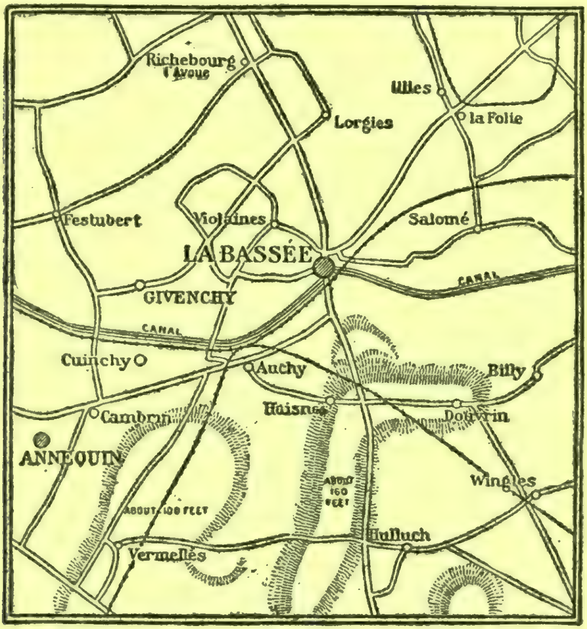
"TIME'S UP! OVER YOU GO!"

The word comes from the officer, watch in hand, "Time's up! Over you go!" and instantly the men from the Dominion begin to climb out of the trench. The picture shows the departure of the first of the three or more lines or "waves" that moves forward over "No Man's Land" against the enemy trenches.

Canadians as a whole were not fully aware of the situation and the sector they were about to attack.

After some preliminary engagements an attack was launched on May 20th against the position known as the Orchard by the Canadian Highlanders. After sustaining heavy casualties through machine-gun fire and unexpected delays from ditches and barbed wire the Orchard position was taken.

On May 21st another objective, known as the Bexhill Redoubt, was taken after a preliminary artillery bombardment, but this was recaptured the following day after German artillery had completely destroyed the trenches captured. At this time, owing to a shortage of men, King Edward's Horse and the Strathcona Horse took their position as infantry in the trenches for the first time, and were subsequently heartily congratulated by General Alderson for the work they had done.


Richebourg
l'Avoue
Illies
la Folie
Lorgies
Festubert
Violaines
Salomé
LA BASSÉE
CANAL
GIVENCHY
CANAL
Cuinchy
Auchy
Billy
Cambrin
Haisnes
Douvrin
ANNEQUIN
Wingles
ABOUT 160 FEET
ABOUT 100 FEET
Hulluch
Vermelles

Where the Canadians Fought the Battles of Festubert and Givenchy

On May 23d a second attack was made on the Bexhill position and the redoubt was again occupied, though the Bexhill position proper had still to be taken. In the attempt to take this position heavy casualties of men and officers were sustained. Trenches were held all day with heavy losses from enemy shelling.

The fighting at this stage was of the most dashing description and many deeds of gallantry were recorded and many honours won, Among others, Sergeant Hickey of the Fourth Canadian battalion won the Victoria Cross, but was killed later by a stray bullet.

It was realized that troops were being wasted in large numbers in the attempt to take an impossible position, with the guns and munitions at our command, and the battle was brought to a close by Sir John French, who said:

> I had now reason to consider that the battle which was commenced by the First Army on May 9th and renewed on the 16th, having attained for the moment the immediate object I had in view, should not be further actively proceeded with.

In the battle of Festubert the enemy was driven from a position which was strongly entrenched and fortified and ground was won on a front of four miles to an average depth of 600 yards.

About 785 prisoners were captured and ten machine guns as well as some material and equipment taken.

On May 31st the Canadian division was withdrawn from the territory it had seized from the enemy and moved to the south end of the British line where it carried on trench warfare until the middle of June.

The battle of Givenchy, which, taken as a whole, was but an isolated battle in the long struggle that occurred on the western front, was in reality a very bloody affair for the Canadian division.

On June 15th the Canadian battalions began the attack in support of the Seventh British division. Though the Canadians won the first line of trenches the British division on their left was unable to advance, in consequence of which the Canadians were enfiladed. The affair was summarized in the despatch of Sir John French of October 15th:

> By an attack delivered on the evening of June 15th after a prolonged bombardment the First Canadian brigade obtained possession of the German front line trenches northeast of Givenchy, but were unable to retain them owing to their flanks being too much exposed.

The losses of the Canadians in killed and wounded were very heavy; in one battalion of twenty-three combatant officers only three missed death or wounds. It was in this affair that Lieutenant

Campbell of the First Canadian battalion had his entire machine-gun crew killed or wounded in the advance. The machine-gun crew, which reached the trench, was reduced to Lieutenant Campbell and Private Vincent. The tripod was missing and Lieutenant Campbell strapped the machine gun on the back of Private Vincent and fired continuously, holding up the German bombers who tried to work their way along the trench. Finally Lieutenant Campbell was wounded and Vincent dragged the gun, which was too hot to carry, away to safety. Lieutenant Campbell, though severely wounded, succeeded in crawling through water and mud to safety, but died in hospital the following day. He was awarded the Victoria Cross.

After several days of heavy artillery fire the Canadian corps was relieved and moved northward to pass the summer in "Plug Street Woods."

On July 1st, "Dominion Day," the first one spent in the war zone, was celebrated by the Canadians with dinners, games and sports enlivened by band concerts.

The costly nature of the fighting in the battles of Festubert and Givenchy, particularly in view of the advances made, may best be gauged by the casualties. In the battles of Festubert and Givenchy the Canadians sustained 2,900 casualties.

The heavy losses of the British in this type of fighting brought to the British people for the first time a true realization of the nature of the fighting. They learned that a machine gun properly placed could sweep down whole battalions of brave men. They learned that wire entanglements, properly constructed, could hold up whole divisions of the most heroic troops in the world, and that, until both machine-gun nests and wire entanglements had been completely destroyed by a preliminary bombardment, attempts to advance were useless. And finally they recognized the fact that this unlimited supply of high explosive shells, so necessary to the success of their armies, depended absolutely on the organization of their industries at home. Britain was at last awake to the situation.

BATTLE OF FESTUBERT

Sir John French's seventh despatch, dated June 15th, 1915, describing the battle of Festubert, is in part as follows:

> On the 15th of May I moved the Canadian Division into the First Corps area and placed them at the disposal of Sir Douglas Haig.

The infantry of the Indian Corps and the Second Division of the First Corps advanced to the attack of the enemy's trenches which extended from Richebourg L'Avoue in the southwesterly direction.

Before daybreak the Second Division had succeeded in capturing two lines of the enemy's trenches, but the Indian Corps was unable to make any progress owing to the strength of the enemy's defences in the neighbourhood of Richebourg L'Avoue.

At daybreak the Seventh Division, on the right of the Second, advanced to the attack, and by 7 A. M. had entrenched themselves on a line running nearly north and south, half-way between their original trenches and La Quinque Rue, having cleared and captured several lines of the enemy's trenches, including a number of fortified posts. . . .

Sir Douglas Haig placed the Canadian and Fifty-first Divisions, together with the artillery of the Second and Seventh Divisions, under the command of Lieutenant-General Alderson, whom he directed to conduct the operations which had hitherto been carried on by the general officer commanding First Corps; and he directed the Seventh Division to remain in army reserve.

During the night of the 19th–20th a small post of the enemy in front of La Quinque Rue was captured.

During the night of the 20th–21st the Canadian Division brilliantly carried on the excellent progress made by the Seventh Division by seizing several of the enemy's trenches and pushing forward their whole line several hundred yards. A number of prisoners and some machine guns were captured.

On the 22d instant the Fifty-first (Highland) Division was attached to the Indian Corps, and the general officer commanding the Indian Corps took charge of the operations at La Quinque Rue, Lieutenant-General Alderson with the Canadians conducting the operations to the south of that place.

On this day the Canadian Division extended their line slightly to the right and repulsed three very severe hostile counter-attacks.

On the 24th and 25th of May the Forty-seventh Division (Second London Territorial) succeeded in taking some more of the enemy's trenches and making good the ground to the east and north.

I had now reason to consider that the battle, which was commenced by the First Army on the 9th of May and renewed on the 16th, having attained for the moment the immediate object I had in view, should not be further actively proceeded with; and I gave orders to Sir Douglas Haig to curtail his artillery attack and to strengthen and consolidate the ground he had won.

In the battle of Festubert above described the enemy was driven from a position which was strongly entrenched and fortified, and ground was won on a front of four miles to an average depth of 600 yards.

The enemy is known to have suffered very heavy losses, and in the course of the battle 785 prisoners and ten machine guns were captured. A number of machine guns were also destroyed by our fire.

> During the period under report the army under my command has taken over trenches occupied by some other French divisions.
>
> I am much indebted to General D'Urbal, commanding the Tenth French Army, for the valuable and efficient support received throughout the battle of Festubert from three groups of French millimetre guns.
>
> In spite of very unfavourable weather conditions, rendering observation most difficult, our own artillery did excellent work throughout the battle.

The following congratulatory message came from the field marshal, commanding-in-chief, to the general officer commanding the First Army:

> I thank you for the results obtained by First Army from May 16th to date. Please convey my congratulations to the Canadians.

THE SITUATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Of all the great powers Great Britain was the least organized for war. Her historical and geographical position had given her certain fixed beliefs and a form of Government which made new departures almost impossible even in a crisis.

Her Allies on the continent looked to the British Empire to ultimately supply the multitude of trained reserves and the guns and material that would finally turn the balance.

By June, 1915, the average Briton was wide awake and inclined to be impatient. The adoption of a scheme, national service, which had been put forward, was much opposed because of the excellent response which had been received to Lord Kitchener's appeal for recruits. The fact that voluntary recruiting was unscientific, unfair and costly did not enter into the consideration of the nation as a whole. National service implied that every citizen was at the disposal of the state, and also that every factory, workshop and individual in Great Britain used for the production of war materials might be as important in the final result as the men fighting in the trenches overseas. National service also involved the sacrifice of freedom of action and the temporary yielding by trade unions of rules and regulations which had been gained only through half a century continuous of struggle.

Great Britain opposed the "mailed fist" of Germany on land in 1914 with practically an ungloved hand. Ten months after war started it dawned upon the authorities at home that their armies were trying to fight against Germany's high explosives with shrapnel; that they were trying to oppose machinery with men.

On June 3d Mr. Lloyd George, Minister of Munitions, in a speech at Manchester frankly told the nation the truth. He spoke of the setback of the Russians in Galicia as due, not to superiority of the German soldiers or German generals, but solely due to German superiority of munitions. Applying the moral to the western front he pointed out that a similar superiority on the part of the Allies might have enabled them to drive the Germans out of France and Belgium. He declared that Germany owed this victory to the organization of her workshops and it was in the workshops of Great Britain that they must also look for success. He suggested that in the industrial field compulsion might be a necessity, for the country had not, as yet, brought one-half of its industrial strength to bear on the problem of winning the war. In that speech by appealing to the spirit of equality, of sacrifice, of service to the empire, and showing that the increased production of shells meant a corresponding reduction in the lives of soldiers sacrificed, Lloyd George stimulated the whole nation to a great new effort. This was the turning point in the war, for Britain set to work to beat Germany at her own game—to out-Krupp Krupps—and she succeeded.

On June 29th a bill for a national register was passed, framed to include all persons, male or female, between the ages of fifteen and sixty-five. On June 9th a munitions department, with Mr. Lloyd George at its head, was formed. The problem which he had to face was a tremendous one. When it came to improvising military stores England found her machinery most inefficient and scanty. Since private industries had not been organized with a view to adaptability the business of increasing production proved lamentably slow. There was a universal shortage of machine tools and there was great competition for labour.

The Munitions Act passed July 2d was designed to put the whole industrial system on a war basis. Arbitration was made compulsory in all trade disputes, strikes and lockouts were forbidden unless a month had elapsed without the Board of Trade taking action.

The Minister of Munitions could declare any work a controlled establishment. Employers' profits were limited, the owner being permitted to take out of the gross profits the net profits plus one-fifth, the rest to go to the state. Trade union rules and all rules practised and customs not having force of law were to be suspended if they tended to restrict production and employment. Wages were not to be affected by the introduction of semi-skilled or female labour. No changes in labour were to be made without the consent of the minister or a tribunal and finally the minister was empowered to make special regulations to which all employees in a controlled establishment must submit.

The country was divided into ten munition areas and skilled workmen were brought from the front and the new armies training at home. In spite of difficulties, including the strike of the South Wales miners, progress was made and the nation as a whole settled down to the business of manufacturing military supplies on a prodigious scale.

Many stupid mistakes were made by the British Government. The volunteer who risked his life was paid one shilling a day; the motor drivers for the mechanical transport were paid six shillings a day, and the job was a safe one. The allowances for wives of the different classes of soldier varied, while the voluntary system of recruiting attracted men with large families which had to be paid large allowances.

The war had been carried on from the beginning on a most extravagant scale and already financiers and business men recognized that the expenditure could not go on indefinitely without some large increase in the national income.

Hence rose the campaign for universal thrift in every detail in the private life of the citizens.

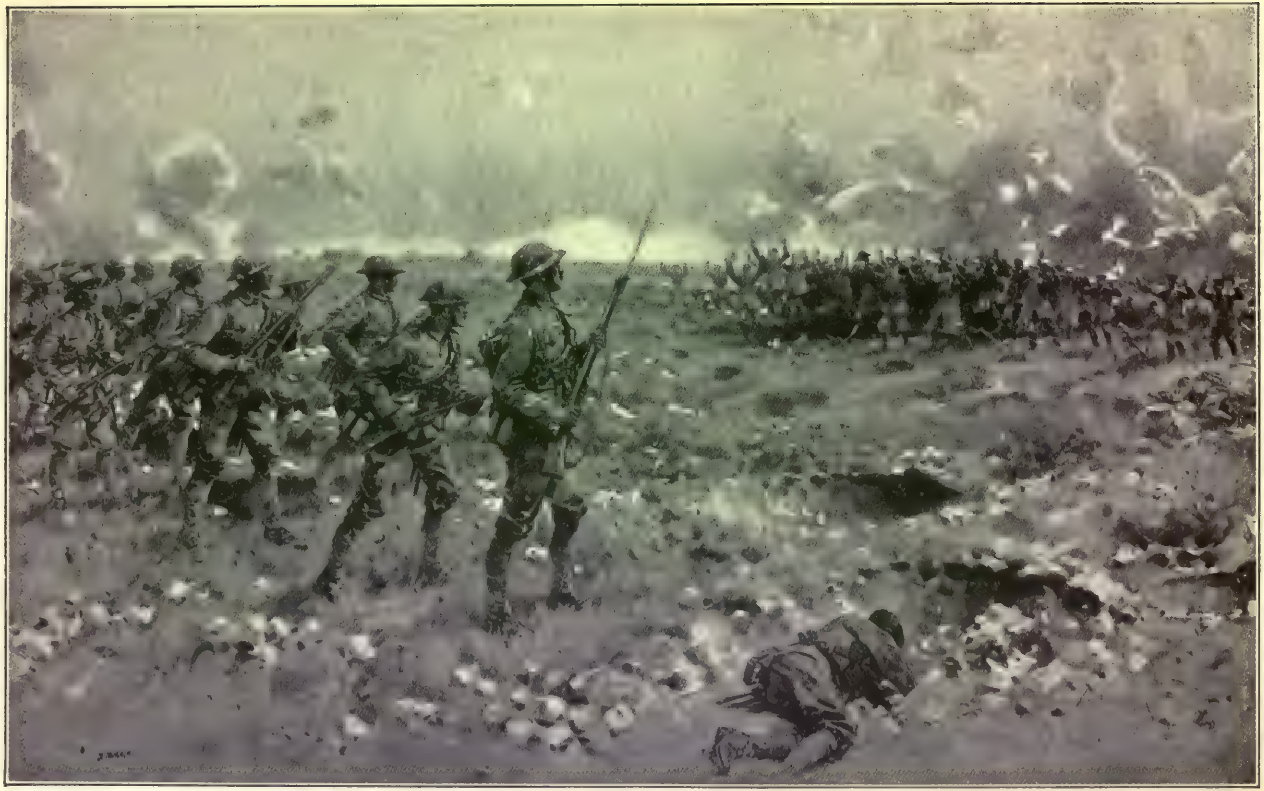
The problem of increasing the national income was faced with courage and sense. Loans had to come out of the savings of the people because the market for foreign loans no longer existed.

On November 1, 1914, the first national loan realized £350,000,000 and in June, 1915, nearly £600,000,000 was raised by the second loan.

In the domain of private effort the work of the British was marvellous. The British Red Cross Society, the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and the Voluntary Aid Detachment provided nursing organizations without parallel. Private hospitals were sent to Serbia; nurses and ambulances went to the French, Russian and Belgian fronts. The civilian populations of France and Belgium were looked after by other organizations, while hundreds of thousands of Belgian refugees were absorbed into the social fabric of

Great Britain. Food supplies were sent to Belgium and huge sums raised for the relief of distress in Poland, Belgium, France, Serbia and other fields. Other organizations provided the luxuries and comforts for the troops, a feature that was greatly appreciated by the soldiers in the field. As men were absorbed into the army system their places were taken by women, who filled the positions of car conductors, chauffeurs, postmen, ticket collectors and so forth. The women's movement in England had given a large class special organization and discipline. The leaders of the movement did much to rouse the nation through the press and the platform and none were more vigorous in their denunciations of slackness and talk of peace. The women of Britain saw only the opportunity for service, and, when the munitions difficulty revealed itself, they were quick to come forward. It was the women of Great Britain working at home no less than their men in the front-line trenches which made ultimate victory possible.

In March the British Government declared a blockade not exactly in accord with the accepted principles of international law. It called for the seizure and confiscation of non-contraband goods of German ownership, origin or destination, carried by neutral ships to neutral ports. As a result America's cotton export was seriously affected by the British policy and she pressed her claims with much force. Though much feeling was aroused, particularly in the southern states, the goodwill of the majority of American people and the anxiety of ministers in the United States and Great Britain to reach an agreement prevented a crisis.



KAMERAD!

Demoralized by terrific shell fire and fearful of British bayonets, German soldiers implore clemency from advancing troops of the Empire.

CHAPTER XV

Fighting on Many Fronts

In September, 1915, the German army on the western front consisted of 2,000,000 men. The 570 miles of front was held lightly at some points and heavily at others, depending on the nature of the ground. On the western front great changes had taken place in the Franco-British line. Thirty additional miles had been taken over by the British to the south, the Tenth French army being placed between the new Third British army under Sir Charles Munro and the First British army under Sir Douglas Haig. The British armies now consisted of 1,000,000 men under Sir John French and the French army contained approximately 2,000,000 men.

The unexpected increase in the British supply of munitions and the arrival of the new British divisions made it possible for an offensive which would have been deferred until spring. An offensive would relieve the pressure on the Russians in the east, embarrass the enemy and wear down his man-power.

The Champagne region was chosen as the main theatre for attack, while more or less serious minor attacks were to be made as far north as Ypres. The Champagne, with its rolling chalk downs, was particularly suited for artillery and infantry attacks, as well as for aerial reconnaissance on a great scale.

Early in September a general bombardment began along the whole allied front, but was particularly violent in Champagne, Lorraine, in the Artois and around Ypres.

The sound along the front in those September days was like the continuous roll of thunder interspersed with the crash and roar of nearby thunderstorms as the local groups of artillery loosened up in special "shoots." One afternoon the writer dropped into the headquarters of the officer commanding a group of heavies. The batteries were in a pleasant orchard probably three miles from the German line, a place so secluded that no German aeroplane had ever succeeded in locating them. At the moment the guns ar

UNIVERSITY OF ST. M LIBRARY

the orchard were crashing rhythmically, and in answer to my interested inquiry I was shown on a large scale map the objective of the moment. It was the station at Lille, ten miles away and six miles beyond the German line. That was typical of what was happening along hundreds of miles of front.

Every day there were numerous aerial battles in which the Allies were almost invariably successful, while numerous bombing raids carried on far back of the German lines did great damage to railway centres, ammunition dumps and hangars.

On September 23d thousands of guns let loose in an intensive bombardment which methodically destroyed the first and second German lines. The sky at night flickered like summer lightning pierced by giant flashes, while the gun fire at a distance sounded like the roll of enormous drums. At 9.15 on September 25th the French cleared their parapets in the Champagne in the long looked for offensive. The German lines there were exceedingly strong; the complicated trenches laced with wire, contained huge dugouts, deep underground, reinforced with timber and steel; machine guns were placed in concrete and steel casements while hundreds of miles of light railways made communication at the rear simple. Preceded by a barrage from the famous 75's the sky-blue-clad line of French infantry swept over the churned-up chalk and captured the first line. The guns followed close after and fired from the open, while cavalry was sent through to clean up Germans before they could reach the second position.

By nightfall the French had carried the German lines on a front of fifteen miles to an average depth of two and a half miles. The struggle continued until September 19th with the French still pushing forward. On that date another great offensive took place and the final line was breached for the length of half a mile, but the space was too narrow to attempt to pour through, the German guns came up behind it and the space was plugged.

The battle of the Champagne was a strategic move in the nature of a straight frontal attack. A little luck would have carried the French clear through the German front but, as almost always, luck did not favor the Allies.

Subsidiary to the great effort in Champagne was the attack launched between Vimy and Loos on September 25th. The French army under D'Urbal attacked the Vimy Heights and the British army under Haig attacked the La Bassée-Loos front. In addition four other attacks were carried out by the British, at Givenchy, Neuve Chapelle, Bois Grenier, and near Ypres, for the purpose of pinning down the Germans on their respective fronts. The two main attacks at Vimy and Loos had the same object of isolating the railway junction of Lens and opening the road into the Scheldt plains.

D'Urbal attacked with an army of seventeen divisions and made some advance the first day after hard fighting. On the second day they were remarkably successful, winning the lower slopes of Vimy and crossing the Souchez River carried Souchez village. On September 29th, in spite of the re-enforcing of the German line, with three corps the French had won the Heights of Vimy.

To the north the four British attacks succeeded in their purpose of preventing the despatch of re-enforcements southward and inflicting heavy casualties.

The main British attack was in a mining region, with collieries, slag-heaps and an open country free from trees and covered with grass. The position was remarkable for its strength, and the Germans were justly confident in being able to resist any attack in that area. All that science and skill could do to re-enforce natural defensive features of the landscape had been done. Nevertheless the British division, among which were the well-proved First Seventh, Forty-seventh and two new Scottish divisions, the Ninth and Fifteenth, swept forward with a dash that proved irresistible. French gunners were amazed at the beginning of this battle to see the Eighteenth London Irish kick off a football from the parapet and dribble it a thousand yards across to the first German line. Loos, two miles behind, was taken by the Highlanders, who swept up the slopes beyond it and over the top to the Cité Ste. Auguste beyond the last German position. The German line had actually been broken clean through by one heroic Highland brigade which had advanced four miles in three hours. So clean cut was the break that the Germans began to get away their heavy guns and the fate of Lille for a short time trembled in the balance.

Unfortunately the only troops available to push through and take advantage of the situation were two new divisions. The writer had watched one of the divisions passing through the village of Merville the day before. They had had no experience in fighting and had not been turned over by Sir John French to Haig for preliminary training in trench warfare. When the Highlanders had broken through the German lines at the Cité Ste. Auguste these two reserve divisions were eight miles away. When they marched into the battlefield, with cookers and water carts, they were heavily shelled. Under the strain they gave way and most of the brigades had to be taken out of the line.

The Fifteenth Highland division, composed of men who had been civilians of all types one year before, came out of the battle with 6,000 casualties and a reputation for fighting that had never excelled. Other divisions, composed perhaps of equally good raw material but deficiently trained, lost what the others had gained. It was a bitter lesson and resulted in criticism which eventually led to the retirement of Sir John French and the re-organization of the headquarter's staff under Sir Douglas Haig.

There was great elation among the British wounded during the battle of Loos. The writer saw the first batch of wounded come in singing and wearing German helmets—as happy as a lot of sandboys. The British soldier felt that at last he had the guns and shells which would give him an even chance with the enemy. Granted this he felt that he could accomplish the rest.

The net result of the battle of Loos was that we carried the first line on a front of 6,500 yards, broke up his reserve positions, and at one point actually broke clean through. Three thousand prisoners were taken as well as twenty-six field guns. Altogether it was the most substantial victory to the credit of the British up to that time and greatly encouraged the army as indicating what could be done and would be accomplished in the future. Nevertheless it dampened the national ardour at home and was responsible for a further tightening of the national jaw and a determination to see the thing through.

GALLIPOLI

The failure of the great naval attack on the Dardanelles of March 18th made the authorities realize that a land force was absolutely necessary to seize the forts and make the passage of the fleet possible.

A combined contingent was therefore gathered up of French and British troops. The French were under General D'Amade and the British under General Sir Ian Hamilton. M. Venizelos had failed to carry through his policy of intervention, and hopes of aid from Greece did not materialize.

Sir Ian Hamilton was not only a brilliant staff officer, a gallant soldier and an efficient administrator, but a man of wide culture, an accomplished writer and a poet.

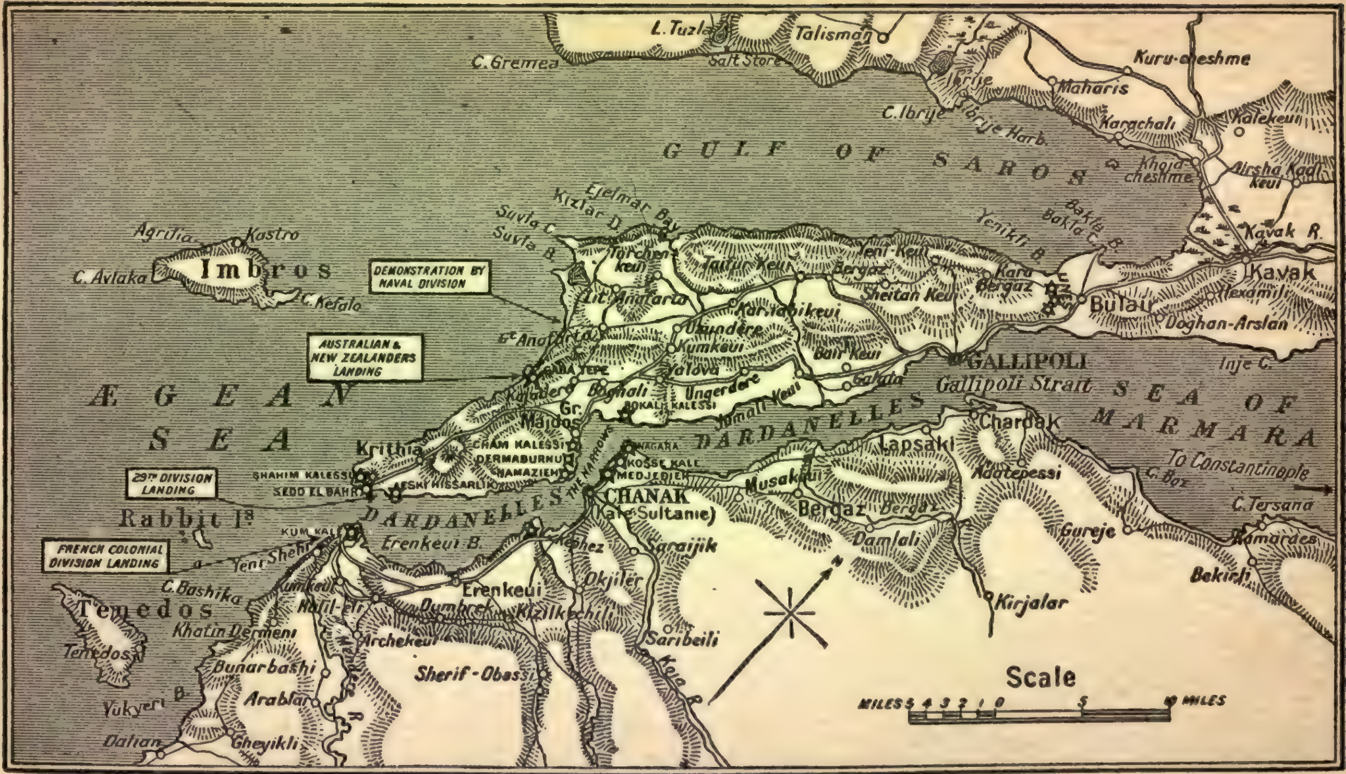
The allied strength of 120,000 men did not include any troops who had been definitely relied upon for the western front.

It is difficult to see how any commander could hope to force a position of such natural difficulty as Gallipoli in the face of an enemy amply supplied with guns and with superior forces. It was therefore logical to assume that 120,000 men would not be sufficient and that troops marked for the western front would later have to be called upon. It was impossible to surprise the enemy in Gallipoli because of the nature of the peninsula. To master Gallipoli meant an assault from the Ægean Sea upon shallow beaches and through gaps in the screen of yellow cliffs. These beaches were few and were situated mostly around Sedd-el-Bahr, Cape Helas and Gabatepe.

The immediate problem of Sir Ian Hamilton was simple enough and meant that a landing must be effected at the apex of the peninsula and at Gabatepe.

The force first landed must fight its way to Krithea while the second force would advance from Gabatepe against the pass leading to Mardos. If the left wing of the first army could then unite with the right wing of the second they might force the Pasha Daja-da-Plateau; in such case the battle would be won, because artillery could be brought to the plateau which would make the European forts untenable. The enemy's positions on the Asiatic side would also be dominated at short range and a combined attack by land and sea would give us the narrows of the Dardanelles.

The attack on Gallipoli was complicated and is difficult to describe. The Australians landed at Gabatepe at a series of beaches at the end of the peninsula. All of the landings took place under most extraordinary conditions, the shores were dominated by machine guns and riflemen upon the cliffs, while artillery swept the attacking forces. Most of the troops were embarked in boats


GULF OF SAROS
ÆGEAN SEA
SEA OF MARMARA
DARDANELLES
Imbros
Tenedos
Rabbit Is.
GALLIPOLI
Gallipoli Strait
CHANAK (Kale Sultanie)
Krithia
Maidos
Kavak
Bulair
Lapsaki
Chardak
DEMONSTRATION BY NAVAL DIVISION
AUSTRALIAN & NEW ZEALANDERS LANDING
29TH DIVISION LANDING
FRENCH COLONIAL DIVISION LANDING
SEDD EL BAHR
KUM KALE
Suvla B.
Suvla C.
To Constantinople
Scale
MILES 5 4 3 2 1 0 5 10 MILES

SCENE OF THE ANZACS' HEROIC EXPLOIT

In the attempt to pierce the Dardanelles the Australians and New Zealanders forced a landing on the Gallipoli peninsula hoping to win their way through to the Sea of Marmora but the loss of life was too heavy and they were withdrawn.

well out at sea and towed inshore by steam pinnaces while others attempted to land from colliers protected with steel. Most of these expeditions came under terrific fire and suffered heavily before landing. Many were drowned and killed by rifle and machine-gun bullets before landing, while, after they had actually reached the beaches, they were subjected to the fire of snipers and machine guns which rained death upon them.

Out at sea the great warships delivered their heavy shells against the Turkish lines, while seaplanes above directed the fire. Royal engineers in the face of almost insuperable difficulties cut roads up the rugged cliffs over which supplies were carried to the men who had worked their way to the top. All the ammunition, water and food had to be dragged up these cliffs. At one beach troops were forced to take cover under the edge of the cliff for two days until repeated attacks had cleared the surrounding area of the enemy.

Our losses were extremely heavy but positions on the top of the cliffs were finally won at all points attacked.

After having become established an attack was made upon the Turkish lines with the main objective of Krithea village, but little ground was gained, the attack failed and the allied attacking force was compelled to fall back.

It was a fight without precedent—60,000 men backed by the most powerful navy in the world attacking a shore seemingly impregnable and held by twice the number of Turks established in positions prepared for months and supported by modern artillery. Every rule of war was set at defiance. The problem of transport was sufficient to deter the boldest. The enemy, a gallant fighter, was at his best in this type of battle and he fought with courage and chivalry as our records showed.

The attack on Gallipoli will always be recognized as a mighty feat of arms.

In taking a bird's-eye view of operations in Europe at the time, we see the French and British lines successfully holding the Germans on the western front; though both sides had endeavoured to break the line, neither had succeeded, and with the great German attempt to break through at Ypres at the end of April the Germans had temporarily abandoned the idea of piercing the allied line in France and Flanders. Germany depended on her great superiority in guns and her ability to hold the Franco-British troops at long range with them while she devoted her attention to disabling the Russian army in the east. The Russian army as we have seen was steadily falling back before the superior weight of men, but particularly of guns and shells.

England had not yet organized her industries to manufacture shells on a large scale, though France had done so and was turning out a supply several times greater than at the beginning of the war. America and Japan were supplying considerable quantities, both of shells and material, and on these supplies Russia was depending. Russia's own facilities for manufacturing guns and shells were limited but she was feverishly working to correct her failure.

Outside supplies, unfortunately for Russia, had to be brought in through the port of Archangel in the Arctic Ocean or across the single Trans-Siberian line from the Pacific coast. Her other great sea highway was closed by the Turkish army occupying Gallipoli and sealing up the Dardenelles. Consequently it was quite clear that the opening up of this passage would mean immense relief to Russia and the struggle at Gallipoli was of vital interest.

General Von Sanders, the Turkish commander-in-chief, had 200,000 men and plenty of artillery at the base of the Gallipoli Peninsula. To feed his troops it was necessary to carry supplies through the Sea of Marmora to the ports of Gallipoli and Mados. If this water transport could be interfered with he would be compelled to carry his supplies and reserves along the Asiatic coast to Chanak, a route that was practicable but circuitous. The Allies endeavoured to make the Sea of Marmora impossible. After a preliminary attempt by an Australian submarine which was sunk on April 30th, Lieutenant-Colonel Boyle, V.C., succeeded in diving under the mine fields and entering the Sea of Marmora, where he operated brilliantly for a few days. He managed to sink two Turkish gunboats and one large transport of troops. A few days later Lieutenant-Commander Eric Nasmith also entered the Sea of Marmora and played havoc with the communications and shipping. The results accomplished by them were very satisfactory because the Turks no longer regarded the Sea of Marmora as safe, no longer travelled through it and in consequence

ON VIMY RIDGE, WHERE CANADA WON LAURELS

The Canadians took the important position of Vimy Ridge on Easter Monday, April 9, 1917. They advanced with brilliance, having taken the whole system of German front-line trenches between dawn and 6.30 A. M. This shows squads of machine gunners operating from shell-craters in support of the infantry on the plateau above the ridge.

their lines of communication were dislocated and delays of great value to the Allies occurred.

The following account of Nasmith's exploits is worth reproducing as one of the most extraordinary feats performed during the whole war:

The submarine *E 11*, in command of Lieutenant-Commander M. E. Nasmith (V.C., D.S.O.) proceeded up the Straits of the Dardanelles accompanied as usual on the surface by hostile destroyers. Her wireless went wrong and she was left deaf and dumb in the middle of the Sea of Marmora, trying to fix up her aerial apparatus in the intervals between dives to avoid hostile craft.

Proceeding towards Constantinople she sank a Turkish torpedo boat near that port and had her periscope smashed by a six-pound shell. After fitting on a new periscope, fixing her wireless and getting in touch with the authorities, she ran across a small steamer off Rodosto and halted her with rifle fire. Being full of ammunition and guns the crew was allowed to get away in the boats and a demolition charge sent the ship to the bottom. *E 11* then chased another heavy laden steamer into Rodosto and torpedoed her as she tied up to the dock. She then drove a paddle-wheel steamer loaded with barbed wire on to the beach. As *E 11* proceeded to destroy it she was hotly fired upon by a party of horsemen who appeared on the cliffs above. A torpedo missed the beached steamer and *E 11*, after recharging her batteries, proceeded slowly towards Constantinople.

Next day she dived unobserved into the Constantinople harbour, greatly hampered by cross tides, mud and currents. After discharging two torpedoes which scared up the whole sea front and made the district exceedingly unhealthy, she dived, grounded heavily, bounced up thirty feet, was headed down again and found herself resting on the bottom and slowly revolving. The officers concluded that they were resting on the shoal under the Leander Tower, corrected her and once more made the centre of the Sea of Marmora.

Wherever they boarded a craft and found nothing of consequence they "parted with many expressions of good will." In between times they used the middle of the Sea of Marmora as a base and there bathed and did all their laundry work.

In the course of time, having done the maximum possible amount of damage, *E 11* proceeded homeward, being nearly cut down by a steamer en route. In passing through the Straits she observed a Turkish troop ship at anchor but reserved her torpedoes for a possible battleship. Not finding any of these she returned and torpedoed the troopship. Having passed through the narrows she suddenly got out of trim and later on the officers heard a noise like grounding, but knowing they were in deep water, came up towards the surface to investigate. There Lieutenant-Commander Nasmith saw a large mine preceding the periscope by twenty feet, apparently hung to the port hydroplane by its moorings. A mine may weigh from two or three hundred to a thousand pounds and they sometimes explode if you think about them. *E 11* did not dare to come up to unhitch the mine on account of the shore batteries, so they pushed the thing ahead of them till they reached the open sea beyond Kum Kale. Then they went full speed astern and emptied the after tanks which brought the bows down. In this posture *E 11* rose to the surface where the rush of the water from the screws together with the speed astern unhooked the mine and let it fall away.

For these exploits Lieutenant-Commander Nasmith, D.S.O., was given the Victoria Cross.

This is merely an example of what was occurring in many branches of the service during the war. For everything that came to the knowledge of the public, there were a dozen others of which they heard nothing. It was the record of such tales as this which revealed unsuspected activities in the most unexpected places. The record of Nasmith as given above was paralleled by that of Commander E. Courteney Boyle, who also operated in the Sea of Marmora, and others. It will take volumes some day to record these exploits in detail.

On April 30th some Indian infantry and part of a naval division disembarked at Gallipoli in time to help repel an attack by the Turks which took place that same night.

In the counter-attacks the Turks were driven out and but for barbed wire and machine guns it was believed that Achi Baba would have been carried. A Territorial division arrived on May 5th and on May 6th the second battle of Krithea began and lasted three days. During this time the Turks were heavily shelled by the warships, which literally peppered the Turkish positions with high explosives.

The situation was an extraordinary one; the Turkish trenches were not more than two hundred yards distant and the dead could be seen lying in hundreds. Through a periscope one observer observed that "There are groups of twenty or thirty massed together as if for mutual protection, some lying on their faces, some killed in the act of firing, others hung up on the barbed wire. In one place a small group actually reached our parapet and now lie dead on it, shot or bayonetted at point-blank range. Hundreds of others lie just outside their own trenches."

A third attempt upon Krithea and Achi Baba was made on June 4th and failed. The need for further re-enforcements became most urgent. Five weeks of constant fighting had not yet touched the outer Turkish position. The ground had been converted by German engineers into almost impregnable defences and the campaign had resolved itself into the kind in which progress can only be made by slow, laborious and costly frontal attacks in which the positions have to be won yard by yard.

To the 31st of May the British casualties in the Dardanelles had amounted to 38,636, which included those which occurred during the landing and the first two attempts on Achi Baba. The losses for the three years in the South African war amounted to 38,156.

Towards the end of May the appearance of German submarines, which sank the *Triumph* and *Majestic,* had compelled the withdrawal of the larger and more valuable British vessels like the *Queen Elizabeth,* which returned to England, leaving only a few of the older battleships and a number of cruisers and monitors. It was at this period in the Gallipoli struggle and when the German submarines had succeeded in driving away some of our finest vessels that Italy entered the arena taking her place with the Allies on May 23d.

The position attacked by our troops in Gallipoli was one of the strongest natural positions in the world. Sir Ian Hamilton said of it: "The country is broken, mountainous, arid and void of supplies, the water found in the areas occupied by our forces is quite inadequate for their needs, the only practicable beaches are small cramped breaks in impracticable lines of cliffs. With the wind in certain quarters no sort of landing is possible. The wastage by bombardment and wreckage of lighters and small craft has led to crisis after crisis in our carrying capacity, whilst over every single beach plays fitfully throughout each day a devastating shell fire at medium ranges."

The Turk was no mean fighter and aided by German military skill and science he was holding the road to his sacred capital against the enemy. His numbers were greater than ours and he had every advantage of ground, weapons and preparation.

We had chosen to attack the Turk in his strongest fortress; he had every possible advantage. It seemed at the time like the shortest way to accomplish our purpose, but it looked as though the scheme had been carried out in ignorance of the actual facts and conditions which were known to scores of Englishmen who had lived and studied in the East.

There were other possible avenues to Constantinople, through Thraice or along the southern shores of the Sea of Marmora, both of which were less difficult than the Gallipoli route because by these other routes the Allies could have advanced on a broad front and fought a campaign of open warfare. Success in either would have automatically cut off the supplies of Gallipoli and led to its fall and the opening of the Dardanelles.

All through June the Turks made frequent attacks on our line but on June 21st the Allies began straightening out their front. Severe fighting occurred involving heavy loss of life but the Allies were successful in their attempt. The Turks are estimated to have lost 5,000 killed and 15,000 wounded during this period.

The conditions in Gallipoli during the hot summer months were indescribable. The air shimmered with heat from the sunbaked soil; stagnant pools of green water bred countless swarms of mosquitoes; there was an indescribable odor of dead bodies everywhere, and clouds of flies, hovering about, covered everything, spread disease and worried the soldiers almost beyond endurance. Nevertheless the spirits of the men and their cheerfulness were beyond description. Khaki knee breeches, a shirt and a sun helmet gradually became the accepted apparel of both men and officers. The Australians particularly fought and worked almost naked in the dusts of the trenches and only when the hour of relief came was it possible for them to get to the shore and bathe in the Ægean Sea.

Facilities were not available for taking baths, destroying garbage or washing. even if the water had been available for the purpose, and men were unable to keep down lice except by the ancient and honourable method of handpicking. The result was that disease was rife in the peninsula and was responsible to a large extent for casualties in the Expeditionary forces. The fighting in July consisted mainly of sporadic Turkish counter-attacks, and small gains were made only after heavy bombardments and great expenditure of life.

On July 12th the Allies made a determined effort to take the Krithea position. A considerable advançe was made which brought Krithea very close but the heights of Achi Baba still remained far out of reach.

The three summer months had been most costly. Six British divisions by the end of July had lost 50,000 men of whom 8,000 were killed, 30,000 wounded and 11,000 missing. The French losses were comparable to ours. Our troops had shown a dauntless courage and devotion which was unexcelled. Little had been gained as a result of this huge wastage, and by the end of July the stalemate which had resulted compelled a revision of our strategy.

NEW LANDING AT GALLIPOLI

Preparations for a final attempt against the Gallipoli position were complete by the end of July. Six new divisions had been despatched to Sir Ian Hamilton for the effort. A new type of monitor, somewhat like a floating gun platform, of shallow draught and immune from torpedoes, arrived on the scene to replace British and French battleships.

The new plan of offensive involved four operations. A feint was to be made on the Balair lines in the Gulf of Saros; an offensive was to be made against Achi Baba from Cape Helles; the Anzac corps was to advance and gain the heights and a great new landing was to be made at Suvla Bay.

The plan, bold in conception, would, if successful, cut the Turkish lines of communication and enable the Turkish forts to be attacked from two directions. Its success depended entirely on the success of each attacking force. Failure of any one would jeopardize the whole plan. The weakest part of the plan was the fact that three new untried divisions were to be used.

The attack of the Australians on the Lone Pine trenches was made with irresistible fury. Their objective was gained, and they hung on to the captured trenches with a stubbornness which was remarkable. Five thousand Turks killed and seven Victoria Crosses testify to the heroic nature of that combat. Attacks made on other sectors amid terrific heat, lack of water, clouds of dust, smoke and insects were too complicated to describe in detail. Had the Suvla Bay venture proved a success, the central ridge of the peninsula would have been taken and the Anzac successes consolidated. But the force under General Stopford failed to take the Anafarta Hills, the Turks counter-attacked and the enterprise was again doomed to failure.

After ten days a wonderful frontal attack was made by the renowned Twenty-ninth division. It succeeded to an extent, but failed in taking its final objective.

Nothing material was gained in the August offensive and we were no nearer gaining a decision. The new line, lengthened by six miles and advanced at one point by a mile, was no easier to hold and commanded no part of the enemy communications. In three weeks the British casualties had been 40,000, of which 30,000 had been sustained between August 6th and August 10th. The general plan was bold and practicable. It failed, owing to mistakes in detail, largely because raw troops had been used at a vital point and because there had been a lack of skill and resolution in handling those raw troops. The heroic actions of the Australians, New Zealanders and Indians had been negatived by these failures.

THE WAR IN MESOPOTAMIA

Little except the name of Mesopotamia is known to most people, and the campaign conducted there against the Turks was the least known of all the campaigns. Yet it had the great strategic purpose of defending India. Germany believed that a blow struck at India would help to paralyze our effort in Europe. Primarily she coveted Mesopotamia which is potentially one of the most fertile countries in the world and had been, under ancient irrigation methods, rich beyond compare. She coveted the opportunities which Great Britain possessed in the East and she determined to divert into her own coffers some of the wealth to be gathered through eastern trade. Accordingly she built the Bagdad railway, developed trading schemes along the Persian Gulf and tried to stir up the Indian tribes and Arabs against the British.

The primary object of the Mesopotamia expedition was to keep the enemy from the shores of the Gulf and shut him off from India. On November 13, 1914, Basra, the port of Bagdad, was taken and the British Force entrenched itself upon the Tigris River. The Turks attacked us without success and it was then decided to take Bagdad, some three hundred miles further up the river, and by capturing that sacred City of Islam deal a heavy blow at Turkish prestige.

The River Tigris is the sole means of communication between Bagdad and the sea. The flat plains on either bank are intersected with swamps and dry cuttings. The population is Arab, semi-nomadic, treacherous and without loyalty to any country.

On May 31st the British force dispersed a Turkish concentration at Kurna, and on June 3d captured Amara, seventy-five miles from Kurna. The remainder of the Turkish forces withdrew to Kut-el-Amara, one hundred and fifty miles farther up the Tigris. With the capture of that point it was believed the port of Basra would be safe, and in early August General Townshend's division was despatched up the Tigris. On September 25th General Townshend came in touch with the enemy at Kut-el-Amara and on September 29th had, with less than 500 casualties, captured the position together with one quarter of the Turkish forces. The operation was brilliantly conceived and executed, and the British force had arrived within one hundred miles of Bagdad. The campaign in Mesopotamia had assumed great importance for it became suddenly linked up with the menace in the Balkans, and the revelation of German strategy which threatened the Near East and India.

Sir John Nixon and the Indian authorities now decided upon pushing on to Bagdad in spite of the protest of General Townshend who realized that with only 15,000 weary troops, one-third only of whom were white, he was entering upon a dangerous adventure.

In early October General Townshend began his advance and after routing a Turkish force of 4,000 at Azizie reached the ruined city of Ctesiphon. There he found 20,000 Turks strongly entrenched and drove them out of their first line. The Turks counter-attacked and were driven back time after time but the British were unable to advance and, after losing one-third of their forces, fell back to Kut where they were surrounded by the Turks.

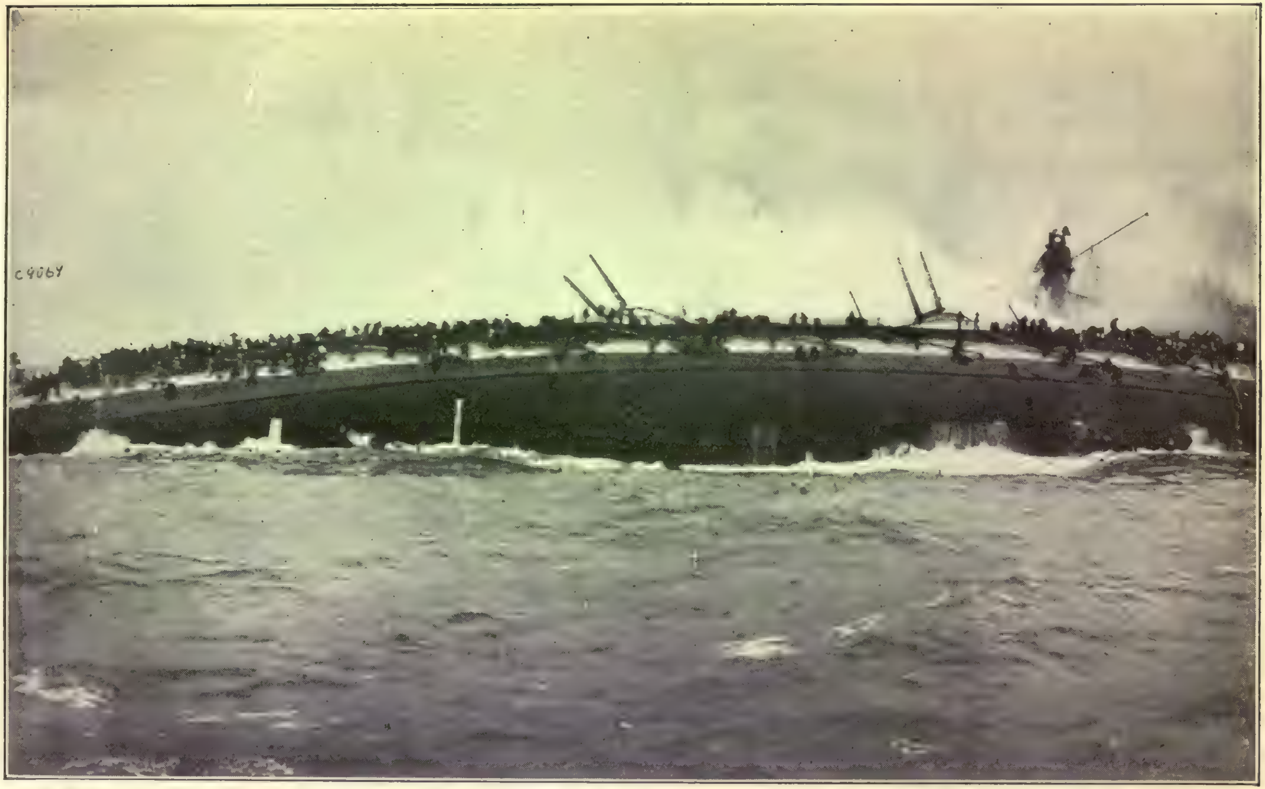
THE RUSSIAN FRONT

By August 21st the German army had taken the forts of Warsaw, Ivangorod, Novo Georgievsk, Kovno and Grodno, but the Russian armies had still escaped destruction and the Germans had therefore failed in their objective. They had not succeeded by any signal victory to shake the confidence of the Allies. Early in September, after four terrible months of continuous battle the pressure against the Russians slackened perceptibly. The Riga-Kovno line was now straightened and retreat was available everywhere the Russians chose.

At this time the Grand Duke Nicholas was replaced by the Czar as commander-in-chief of the Russian army and the Grand Duke was sent to be Viceroy in the Caucasus. To the Russian people it was a sign that the war would be waged to a triumphant conclusion. It was an evidence to Germany that Russia had no intention of quitting the arena.

In September the Germans attacked the Russians at Vilna and, by crushing in their flanks, almost succeeded in trapping a large section of their army. But in spite of all their efforts the Russian army, fighting with extraordinary tenacity and skill, escaped once more. In the north Von Mackensen and Ermolli failed to win the Rovno and Sarny, and sustained 80,000 casualties in the attempt. The month of October had come and the German effort had still failed to achieve its aim.

Nevertheless, the effect of the retreat upon Russia had been most marked. Two million refugees pouring into the country made the Russian people realize what war really was. They had all to be provided for by the civilian population. When the Duma met in August, astonishing revelations as to German influences in Russia were made, particularly in regard to the control of the output of munitions. Unfortunately the Duma, the only assembly capable of expressing the popular will, became



© *International News Service.*

THE SINKING OF THE GERMAN CRUISER "BLUECHER"

This dramatic photograph from the great North Sea Battle in 1915 shows the stricken ship just as she turned turtle and was about to sink. Officers and men can be seen swarming like ants on the upper side of the hull. Others, who either fell or preferred to take their chance in the sea, are shown swimming away from the wreck.

controversial in character and was prorogued till November. The Czar summoned the leaders and persuaded them to drop controversial matters, and a new Duma was assembled—a popular chamber demanded by progressives and reactionaries alike.

ITALY ENTERS THE WAR

Italy had been a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austro-Hungary, the terms of which bound the nations to stand by each other in case of attack. When war broke out in 1914 Italy refused to throw in her lot with the Central Powers because they had been the aggressors, an opinion which was the verdict of the whole world. For many long years there had been a marked friendship between Italy and Great Britain. Realizing the danger to the Central Powers through Italy throwing in her lot with the Allies, Germany made every effort to keep her neutral. Even their tame socialists were sent to Italy to urge Italian socialists to keep the country out of the war. Italy's geographical position would have made it exceedingly difficult for her to enter war against France or England because her long coast line could be attacked with impunity by French and English navies. In view of this fact the Triple Alliance carried a proviso that Italy was not bound to fight England in case of war.

The alliance with Italy had been brought about by Bismarck who engineered the situation which resulted in the French seizing Tunis in 1882. This angered the Italians so much that they accepted a place in the Triple Alliance which would protect them from France and Austria. England at that time was in the position of "splendid isolation" and had no European alliances.

One result of the Triple Alliance was that Germany obtained a strong commercial and financial hold in Italy. Nevertheless Austria, her natural enemy though her ally, did everything possible to irritate Italy except actually declare war; and at last the arrogance of the two central powers became so great that the claims of their Italian ally in the Balkan peninsula were completely ignored. Italy's eyes were finally opened wide by the overt act of the Central Powers in seizing Bosnia and Herzegovina. In spite of their alliance no love had ever been lost between the Germans and the Italians.

After almost a year of negotiation, in which the Italian government won on technical points alone, the road was open for Italy to declare war.

The country, during that period, had been flooded with German propaganda, newspapers had been subsidized and much German money spent in endeavouring to keep the country neutral, yet when the time came public opinion in Italy swept all before it and the nation by a vote of 470 to 74 decided upon war. Italy declared war upon Austria on May 23, 1915, though it was a year later before she declared war upon Germany.

The scene which took place at the rear of the Public Tribune when the Chamber was about to declare war was a memorable one. Gabriel D'Annunzio, the great Italian poet and writer, who had preached war with all his great oratorical powers throughout the country, was seized by the people and passed shoulder high over the crowds which jammed the space. The entire Chamber and those occupying the other Tribunes rose to their feet and applauded for several minutes crying "Viva D'Annunzio." Later on this great writer showed himself as a naval officer equally great in torpedoing Austrian battleships, or as an aviator leading air squadrons in battle line over Austrian territory.

During the period since the war first began in 1914, General Cadorna had been bringing the army up to date and piling up munitions.

In Italy every man was liable to a period of military service of nineteen years. At the time of the war the approximate strength of the army was 3,000,000, of which more than 1,200,000 were fully trained soldiers, and 800,000 were partially trained.

On the day that war was declared Austria struck the first blow by dropping bombs on Venice and bombarding the Adriatic ports. The Italian army invaded Austria with great rapidity advancing across the Isonzo River northwest of Trieste and towards Gorizia in the north.

On June 7th the general Italian advance took place on a front of forty miles but failed to capture Trieste, though they were within nine miles of it.

The Austrian front which up to that time had been defended chiefly with hastily mobilized troops was now re-enforced by some of the finest fighters from the Galician front and the Italian advance was stayed.

BULGARIA DECLARES WAR ON SERBIA

When Germany failed to crush the Russian army at Vilna she immediately entered upon a new campaign to maintain her prestige and sicken the Allies of the war. This time she chose to attack Serbia—a venture that promised an easy and rapid success. The army of invasion under the command of Mackensen was composed of Austrians re-enforced by some German regiments and the assistance of Bulgaria was counted on.

Bulgaria at the beginning of the war negotiated with the Allies in an effort to regain some of the territory lost in the second Balkan war. A large proportion of the Bulgars sympathized with Russia, but the German advance in Galicia and the Allies' failure in the Dardanelles prevented any concrete action in favor of the Allies. King Ferdinand of Saxe-Cobourg-Gotha was a German and one of the most cunning men in Europe. With his pro-German sympathies and numerous supporters he managed to keep Bulgaria free of any alliance with the Allies and to promote by every possible means the feeling that the Central Powers must inevitably win and that Bulgaria should therefore be on the winning side. In mid July a secret treaty was entered into with the Central Powers which, on October 5th, culminated in a declaration of war upon the Allies.

The Balkans region is inhabited by many races of fighting dispositions. The Bulgarians, Serbs, Rumanians, Turks and Greeks each have their own territories but these unfortunately do not always correspond to their nationalities. Each country contains within its boundaries large numbers of neighbouring peoples and from these sources rise bitternesses of which western peoples have no conception.

From the year 1466 to 1875 the Turks controlled the Balkans largely by pitting one race against the others and keeping them weakened. As the Turks themselves became weak the Balkan nations began to assert themselves and one by one broke away, forming independent kingdoms. Greece became independent in 1829; Serbia practically so in 1830; Rumania in 1859, while Bulgaria revolted in 1876. The atrocities then committed by the Turks in crushing the rebellion led to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877 and ultimately to the recent war.

The Russo-Turkish war was settled in 1878 by the treaty of Berlin, which left every racial question unsettled and has resulted in a continuous series of quarrels in which each of the Balkan peoples has sought the support of one or other of the great powers. Bulgaria has been constantly the centre of intrigues with Austria and Russia, both of whom had the object of extending their own dominions towards Constantinople.

"Ferdinand the Fox," a man ambitious, ostentatious, most cunning and a personal coward, during his long reign gradually created a powerful kingdom of Bulgaria, which, in 1908, was recognized to be independent by Turkey. Though the Balkan States were perfectly aware of Austro-German ambitions to extend their power eastward, each of them was exceedingly jealous of the other. Their one common tie was a hatred of Turkey and in 1912 they formed a secret agreement, declared war on Turkey and decisively defeated her. The Triple Alliance refused to ratify the agreement made by the Balkan States that Serbia should obtain an outlet to the Adriatic Sea, and Bulgaria refused to compromise by giving her an outlet to the Ægean Sea. As a consequence, in July, 1913, Greece and Serbia attacked Bulgaria. Turkey took the opportunity to regain Adrianople, and Rumania, which had in the first Balkan war remained neutral, entered the field.

The Treaty of Bucharest was signed on August 10th after the surrender of Bulgaria. This left Bulgaria thoroughly disgruntled. She had suffered heavy losses in the war with Turkey in which she had been the leader and she had lost a fine port on the Black Sea. All the Balkan States in fact were seething with dissatisfaction, but Bulgaria particularly was in a condition where revenge would be sweet. When the war broke out in 1914 Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Rumania were all strongly sympathetic with Russia who had always been ready to back them, while Bulgaria, whose growth to power had been altogether through Russia's protection, was now ready to seek an alliance with the Central Powers.

On October 3, 1915, an ultimatum was handed Bulgaria by Russia stating that unless Bulgaria sent away Austrian and German officers, ceased mobilizing her armies on the Serbian borders and openly broke with Russia's enemies, the Russian Minister had orders to leave Bulgaria with the staff of the Legation.

Similar ultimatums were delivered by Great Britain and France. Bulgaria issued a long manifesto to the nation stating her position, and written in typically insolent German style. In her reply to the Allies' ultimatum she stated that the presence of German officers in Bulgaria was Bulgaria's concern only.

Venizelos, the Greek Premier, seeing what was coming, had, on September 21st, asked the Allies for 150,000 troops, and the Allies agreeing, Greece began to mobilize on September 24th with the enthusiastic backing of the Greek Chamber. King Constantine of Greece, a brother-in-law of Kaiser Wilhelm, refused to support M. Venizelos in his policy and forced his resignation, much to the indignation of the Greeks. The king, who had a considerable amount of support, won out and the landing of the Allies at Salonika in October strengthened the opposition to the Venizelos policy. The Greeks under the new premier, M. Zaimis, assumed an attitude of armed neutrality. Seventy thousand French troops arrived at Salonika on October 3d, landing after a final protest of the Greek commandant, who did everything thereafter to facilitate the landing of the troops. In a short time the Allies had 150,000 troops at Salonika.

Events marched rapidly in the Balkans, and Serbia, with an army of 200,000 men, found herself attacked on three sides by 200,000 Austro-Germans and 250,000 Bulgarians.

The diplomacy of the Allies, as usual in any Balkan crisis, failed miserably. Refusing to take the advice of their own experts and their Allies, who knew what was coming, they dallied with the situation until matters had gone too far. Had they taken strong action early Bulgaria would never have gone in with the Central Powers and the co-operation of Greece and Rumania would probably have been secured.

As it was the allied army landed at Salonika was too weak, Greece remained neutral at the crucial moment, and Serbia found herself without the help promised by the allied powers. On September 19th Belgrade was bombarded and Mackensen's attempt to open up a road to Constantinople was in full sway. The Serbs fought with great valor but were hopelessly outnumbered.

The Serbian army, fighting magnificently, fell back and on November 8th had almost effected a junction with the allied forces advancing from Salonika. The advance of the allied army under General Sarrail had been successful until the first week in November when, finding themselves opposed by 125,000 Bulgarians in a dangerous position, they were forced to fall back. The juncture with the Serbians as a consequence failed and the Serbian retreat developed into a rout.

On October 20th the Bulgarian and Austro-German armies formed a juncture in the Dobravado Mountains that enabled the Germans to announce that the road to the Orient through Austro-Hungary and Bulgaria had been opened.

The sufferings of the Serbian people at that time were indescribable. Much of the civilian population retreated with the army; the roads were strewn with starving, exhausted men; disease and famine, in regions destitute of shelter and among people exposed to the cold, played their deadly rôle, and when the remnant of the Serbian people reached a haven they were broken, exhausted and diseased beyond description.

Meanwhile a great political struggle was occurring in the Greek Chamber as to the position Greece should assume, and the Allies, fearing an attack from the rear, were compelled to adopt strong measures to keep Greece from becoming hostile.

CHAPTER XVI

Canadian Troops Prove Their Metal

At the time of the second battle of Ypres the second Canadian division was crossing the Atlantic. Of the first contingent of 33,000 men five battalions, the Sixth, Ninth, Eleventh, Twelfth and Seventeenth had been left in England to act as the nucleus of a drafting and training division.

In the first week of October, 1914, just after the first contingent had sailed for Europe, Canada had offered a Second division of 20,000 men which had been accepted by the Imperial Government. Recruiting for this had begun at once, each battalion being raised as a separate unit for the purposes of enlistment and training. Mobilization of the Fourth brigade was commenced in October, 1914. The regiments of the Fifth brigade began mobilizing at the end of October. This brigade was placed under the command of Brigadier-General Watson.

The First division had started from Gaspé Harbour in Quebec as a single great convoy under the escort of an Atlantic squadron. The Second division left in single ships without any of the picturesque features associated with the first armada. Nothing unusual occurred to any of the transports carrying the Second division and all arrived safely in England. The transportation, which began in April, was largely completed by May though the last troops arrived only in August. The Second division was actually constituted on May 24, 1915, under the command of Major-General Steele, C. B., M. V. O.

TRAINING THE SECOND CANADIAN DIVISION

The Second division was fortunate in comparison with the First division in that it underwent its course of training during an English summer in the charming country about Shorncliffe.

The contrast of these battalions tramping through the green Kentish lanes in summer under a pleasant summer sky with that of battalions of the first Canadians tramping over dreary, rain soaked downs or through roads many inches deep in mud, under skies which alternately showered water, sleet and snow, and where high winds of the most biting character found one's very marrow, was very marked.

The Second division after undergoing its normal course of training was visited by His Majesty the King, accompanied by Lord Kitchener, on September 2, 1915. Like the review of the First division, that of the Second also took place before the British sovereign under a grey and gloomy sky. On September 14, 1915, under the command of Major-General Turner, V.C., the Second division passed over to France. Major General Steele remained in command of the troops in the Shornecliffe area.

The Second division crossed the narrow channel at Boulogne and shortly afterwards joined the First Canadian division at Ploegsteert Woods.

One particularly interesting incident was the recognition by the French people of the Twenty-second battalion, which had been entirely recruited from the French-Canadians in Quebec. The French, who seemed to know little about French Canada, were astonished to learn that there were more than 2,000,000 French-Canadians in the Province of Quebec and repeatedly asked why they had not come over to fight in the cause of their old Mother Country. Explanations were too involved and difficult for one not over fluent in the French language. It was therefore a matter of relief to Canadians and a satisfaction to the French people when more than a thousand soldiers speaking the same language as themselves landed on their shores. It was a curious rendezvous of peoples descended originally from the same stock, but who for centuries had had no communion with one another.

The Canadian corps was immediately formed upon the arrival of the Second Canadian division under the command of General Alderson who had formerly commanded the First division. The First division thereupon went to Major-General Currie whose brigade was taken over by Brigadier-General Lipsett. The Second Canadian division as we have seen was already in command of Major-General Turner and his brigade, the Third, was taken over by Brigadier-General Leckie. The Second division relieved the Twenty-eighth British division on the sector which stretched northward from the line occupied by the First Canadian division.

Canadian Official Photograph. *Copyright Reserved.*

COMPLETE TRANSPORT OF THE SECOND CANADIAN MACHINE GUN BATTALION

The gun and ammunition carts of this famous fighting unit.

At this time the Anglo-French army made a great offensive. The greatest effort of the French took place in the Champagne, and the British made their most serious attempt in the vicinity of Loos near La Bassée.

When an offensive took place on any part of the line it was essential for the rest of the troops to make a series of holding attacks for the purpose of keeping the enemy on the *qui vive* and preventing him from despatching reserves to the real point of danger. The first experience of the Second Canadian division was to take part in a gigantic bluff attack; on September 24th, the day after they had finally taken over their sector, the artillery opened up and cut great gaps in the enemy's wire as if to open a road for our attacking columns. Early in the morning sacks full of wet straw were set on fire so that the smoke formed was carried towards the enemy; at that moment, for the first time, real gas was being employed by the British near Lens and the Hohenzollern redoubt. At the same time the Canadian commanding officers issued orders, blew whistles and carried on all the movements to be expected before a real attack. As a result the Germans filled their front line trenches with troops ready to repel our attack at which opportune moment the Canadian gunners heavily shelled the enemy trenches and caused a considerable number of casualties.

Up to the end of October there is nothing of importance to record on the Canadian front. Most of the time was spent in perfecting and improving the trench systems.

The Canadians developed a marked aptitude for scouting in No Man's Land and after a few preliminary encounters remained in almost undisputed possession. This kind of work, however, was made dangerous by the enemy employing land mines and booby traps which would explode on touching a wire and blow the scouting soldier or raiding party to pieces.

At the end of October the rainy season began and the labour of weeks in preparing trenches was in many places destroyed in a few hours by the unrevetted clay walls collapsing like jelly. Communication trenches became impassable, parapets fell in, trenches filled with water and life to the soldier in the trenches became miserable beyond conception.

After some weeks, however, a drainage system for the trenches was devised, the bottoms of the trenches were covered with wooden paths, perhaps two to three feet high in the worst places and the sides of the trenches were re-enforced with wire and wooden props.

The section known as "Plug Street" Woods seemed peculiarly familiar to men from Ontario for on first impression it reminded them of the old holiday grounds of Muskoka. It was possible to drive right into the Ploegsteert Woods by motor car and then, by walking up the hill through the woods, enter the Canadian trenches. In these woods numerous log houses had been built, resembling those of campers in Muskoka, while rustic fences, gates and trellis work completed the illusion that this was a section of one of Canada's summer playgrounds.

Winter in Flanders is a period of rain, mist and general dreariness for weeks and even months at a time. Great actions or large movements were impossible and yet it was necessary that the soldiers be kept keen and interested. It is true that the artillery could obtain practice whenever it chose by firing by the map on trenches or other objectives. Without aeroplane observation, however, which was often difficult or impossible in those months, the results of such fire were not remarkable.

THE FIRST TRENCH RAID

In November Brigadier-General Lipsett decided that the time had arrived for proving his belief that raiding parties, properly rehearsed, could enter the German lines, inflict large numbers of casualties and obtain much information without material loss to themselves. Accordingly a section of enemy trench to be operated upon was carefully photographed and numerous reconnaisances were made until the exact details of the trench, the configuration of the land, the wire and other natural or artificial obstacles in front of the objective were accurately known. A detailed model of the enemy's trenches was then dug and the men who were to make the raid were rehearsed until they knew their task by heart.

The first trench raid was made by two parties of the Fifth and Seventh battalions. One party entered the enemy trench, killed or took prisoners a large number of Germans and for twenty minutes carried on their work under enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. As the prisoners were passed back over the parapet they were taken charge of by scouts and led to the Canadian lines. When the time was up and the raiding party had returned our own artillery dropped its fire from the German positions to the bombed section of trench, hoping to catch some of the re-enforcements which were sure to be despatched to that area.

It was a most successful venture. A few Canadians of the Seventh battalion had attacked a section of German trench, killed fifty of the enemy, brought away twelve prisoners and destroyed parapets, dugouts and machine-gun emplacements, while after they had returned, the artillery opening up on all sides, completed the task and did as much damage as possible. One Canadian soldier had been killed and another wounded, while the morale and nerve of the enemy had been shaken. Equally successful sorties were carried out by the Eighth and Tenth battalions.

This new feature of trench warfare proved so successful that an account of it was forwarded by Canadian headquarters to the British commander-in-chief. He in turn passed it on, not only to his army, but to the French army authorities, with the result that hundreds of trench raids were carried out during the winter. They served to keep our troops on edge and interested, while the total amount of damage done was very great.

Sir Douglas Haig in his report of events during the winter of December, 1915, to May, 1916, said:

> One form of midnight activity deserves special mention, namely, the raids or cutting-out parties which are made at least two or three times a week against the enemy lines. They consist of a brief attack with some special object on a section of the opposing trenches usually carried out at night by small bodies of men. The character of these operations—the preparation of a road through and under the enemy's wire, the crossing of the open ground unseen, the penetration of the enemy's trenches, the hand-to-hand fighting in the darkness, and the uncertainty of the strength of the opposing forces—give peculiar scope to the gallantry. . . and quickness of decision of the troops engaged and much skill and daring are frequently displayed.

In these trench raids the initiative was certainly with the British, the Canadians particularly seeming to be peculiarly adapted to this type of Indian-like warfare. Owing to the difficulty of using bayonets in the narrow trenches several new weapons were elaborated, such as the trench knife, and knob-kerrie, a ferocious instrument consisting of a knob on the end of a stick studded with knobs of steel.

FORMATION OF THE THIRD CANADIAN DIVISION

To the Canadian with visions of blue cloudless skies, and crisp sparkling snow, the leaden atmosphere and lowering skies of their first Christmas day in Flanders was most depressing.

The sodden fields, the shell-torn No Man's Land between the trenches, the mist laden air and the never-ending booming of the guns created an atmosphere of unreality which made the Christmas of the home land seem far away. On Christmas day the enemy made numerous efforts to fraternize with the Canadians but without success. There was practically no firing throughout the day and lugubrious German songs were wafted at intervals to our trenches.

During the long months the men of the First division had seen the terrors of war multiplied by bombs, mine throwers, rifle grenades, gas, improved artillery and trench weapons. They had met each new trial with fortitude and had proved that the Canadian volunteer was second to none in discipline, intelligence and initiative: and possessed in a remarkable degree the dogged valour associated with the Anglo-Saxon race.

The Second Canadian division had also gone through three months of the monotony of the steady round of trench tours, fatigues, rest periods with training, and the miseries of waterlogged trenches and bitter winds.

A Third Canadian division was formed under the command of Major General Mercer, C.B., during January and February of 1916. One infantry brigade was composed of battalions which had been acting as Canadian corps troops and included the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry and the Royal Canadian regiment.

The Second infantry brigade was made up of six Canadian mounted rifle regiments which had comprised part of the cavalry brigade. These two brigades of the Third division almost immediately began front line work.

Nothing unusual occurred on the Canadian front until March 27th when the Third British division on the bluff in front of St. Eloi sprang a series of seven enormous mines which shook the country for miles around like an earthquake. The German trenches were obliterated and the British advance was carried beyond the enormous craters which had been formed well into the German support lines. The salient which had formerly existed in the British front was thereby almost exactly reversed.

The ground separating the great craters was a morass of mud pitted with shell holes filled with water. After its capture by the British every available enemy gun was turned upon the new 600-yard front, and it was literally deluged with shrapnel and high explosives.

When the Second Canadian division relieved the exhausted Third Imperial division on April 4th they found only remnants of trenches littered with dead and wounded, whole sections having been completely blotted out. The area could be held only by patrols and bombing posts until new trenches could be constructed. This task working parties of the Fifth Canadian brigade endeavoured to carry out while the men of the Sixth brigade lying out in the mud, drenched with rain, continuously bombed by Germans from vantage points and harassed by artillery and machine-gun fire were making a show of resistance. But it was only a show, for rifles and machine guns were jammed with mud and bombs could not be brought up through the heavy German barrage in sufficient quantities. After a sixty-hour bombardment, while an attempt was being made to relieve the Canadian outposts, machine gunners and fragments of battalions, the German artillery suddenly redoubled its furious cannonade. Under the terrific fire the relieving troops caught in the open blundered blindly in the darkness and mist through broken trenches and shell holes; many men disappeared in the mud or water-filled shell holes and were drowned, while all communication was lost between the relief parties and their supports. Headquarters, not knowing where these units were, because all telephone connection had been cut, could give no protective artillery support and indescribable chaos reigned over that tortured strip of territory.

Then the Germans, advancing, swept away any lingering resistance and seized two of the craters, while later on it is supposed they succeeded in taking the two adjacent craters and linking them up with one of their old supports lines.

Of subsequent operations reports are conflicting and incomplete; conditions were so chaotic that no connected story of events can be written. Groups of Canadians holding advanced positions were annihilated, runner after runner was killed and their urgent messages remained undelivered; the very contour of the ground altered as shells levelled mounds and created new hollows. No movement was possible by daylight, and in the blackness of night sense of direction was absolutely lost. Yet somehow the position was not lost, reliefs were somehow carried out, counter-attacks were still made and ground was even retaken. The "Battle of the Craters" will live as one of the greatest feats of endurance and stubborn tenacity in the history of Canadian arms, being only rivalled perhaps by the battle of Passchendaele.

For five endless days and nights the struggle was carried on by men who were beaten by every rule of warfare. Yet the stupid German mind did not, as on many other occasions, seem to realize that he had accomplished his purpose and had only to develop his advantage to achieve a genuine victory of perhaps far-reaching effects. As in the second battle of Ypres it demonstrated the fact that the ability of the individual British soldier to fight his own battles when concerted action was no longer possible, paralyzed methods based upon the formula that soldiers are machines to be led or driven but incapable of individual initiative.

On April 19th after a hurricane artillery fire our garrisons were blown out of craters six and seven and the surrounding outposts. The Germans had become the masters of the craters but finding them untenable abandoned them, and the sepulchre of many hundreds of brave Canadians became a deserted land which spring gradually transformed into green fields dotted with wild flowers.

BATTLE OF HOOGE AND SANCTUARY WOOD

The battle area then moved northward to the vicinity of Hooge. On June 1, 1916, the Third Canadian division occupied a sector in the Ypres salient a few miles south of that field of Langemark and St. Julien rendered immortal to Canadians by the deathless struggle of the First Canadian divisions. The First Canadian division occupied the line to the right of the Third division while the Second division was still on its old ground at St. Eloi farther south.

The third divisional left front line was held by the Royal Canadian regiment while the P. P. C. L. I.'s, First and Fourth Canadian mounted rifles occupied the front line from Sanctuary Wood to Mount Sorrel. Back of these were their supports and reserves holding Zouave Wood and Observatory Ridge.

On June 2d the Germans made a terrific attack on the trenches at Hooge and the north end of Sanctuary Wood, bombarding the whole front, support and communication trenches. For five hours they kept up the most intense fire after which they launched their attack supported by flame projectors. Major-General Mercer commanding the Third division and Brigadier-General Williams were making an inspection of the trenches at the time and were caught in the deluge of shells. General Mercer ordered all the artillery in his command to retaliate but the wires having already been cut the message had to be carried by two pairs of runners. A shell exploding close by seriously wounded Brigadier-General Williams and stunned General Mercer and both were carried into the "tube trench" for shelter. Hour after hour the bombardment of the C. M. R. brigade continued and their trenches were blown in one by one while the few unwounded or unburied hugged shell holes until the bombardment should lift. General Mercer tried to get back to his headquarters through the heavy barrage but was shot and had his leg broken when near Armagh Wood.

The enemy had broken through on a front of several thousand yards to a depth of over two miles. The situation was extremely critical and demanded immediate counteraction. Several counter-attacks were made that night without avail and the attacking parties were withdrawn. The German bombardment which had been put forward several hours on account of the presence of the Canadian generals in the trenches was of unprecedented intensity, over a million shells having been put over on the Canadian front in five hours.

General Mercer was killed by a British shell that night and Brigadier-General Williams was captured. In General Mercer the corps lost a fine officer and a gallant gentleman. Nothing could live in that ghastly deluge as is evidenced by the fact that one battalion, the Fourth Canadian mounted rifles, entered the fight 670 strong and came out less than sixty strong; four motor lorries carried all that was left of the battalion back to rest billets.

In the quieter days that followed information gained by patrol observation enabled the Canadian commanders to plan a successful assault.

On July 8th an attack was made by the First division on Mount Sorrell to re-establish our line there. The wire was not sufficiently cut and the attack failed. After a complete artillery preparation against the German lines for several days and a final intense bombardment in the early morning of July 13th, the infantry attack began and proceeded like clock work. Advancing irresistibly the Canadians swept away the German resistance and completely restored the Mount Sorrel-Observatory Ridge position. Heavy punishment was inflicted upon the enemy and several hundreds of prisoners were captured. The First Canadian division had made the Huns pay dearly for their temporary success over the Third Canadian division and the enemy counter-attack failed to dislodge the Canadians who had come to stay.

ALL SINGLE MEN CALLED TO THE COLOURS IN BRITAIN

In October, 1915, the rate of recruiting had fallen dangerously low in Great Britain. There were in the country at least 2,000,000 single men of military age not enlisted. There were also many married men who were willing to join up when the unmarried had gone.

Lord Derby drew up a scheme which enlisted men by groups. Men had to enlist and then could appeal to a local tribunal for exemption. The groups were called in order, the young unmarried men first, and the married later. Enlistments began enthusiastically with the approval of the Trade Union leaders.

When Lord Derby made his report it was found that a total of 3,000,000 had placed themselves at the disposal of the country from which the yield would be less than 900,000 men. Unless steps were taken to compel the enlistment of the large unattested balance of single men the yield would be only half that number. As the nation was now generally in favor of conscription, Mr. Asquith, in January, 1916, introduced the Military Service Bill into Parliament —a bill not extended to Ireland. The Home Secretary, Sir John Simon, resigned office to lead the feeble opposition to the bill, and his argument convinced the country of the necessity for it. Mr. Balfour, Mr. Bonar Law and General Seely supported the bill which carried its second reading by a majority of 392 and had only thirty-six opponents in its final reading, the Irish Nationalists abstaining from voting.

The principle of voluntary enlistment so dear to the heart of the Englishman had gone by the board. England had at last

ADMIRAL SIR JOHN JELLICOE
Chief of the Naval Staff

VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY
Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Fleet.

thrown away the scabbard and was fully determined to wield the sword until she had achieved victory or gone down to defeat.

Before next midsummer Great Britain had mobilized for direct and indirect purposes a larger proportion of her population than any belligerent country except France—a truly amazing performance. She had not only equipped the vast British army of 5,000,000 men but supplied huge quantities of equipment to her Allies. She had improvised army, officers, munitions and equipment at a period when war had become a business of the most scientific and technical decription.

Undoubtedly there was room for criticism at the time and Winston Churchill voiced the opinion of many at the front when he said that half the army was in England and had never been under fire; that for every six men recruited only one rifle appeared in the firing line, and that of the half abroad only half fought. Later on the combing-out processes in England yielded large numbers of men for service abroad.

REACTIONS ON THE WESTERN FRONT

In the early months of 1916 the British army in France was opposed by forty German divisions of excellent quality. The battle of Verdun soon began to suck in all the German strategic reserves and any enemy movement on the British front became impossible. No reinforcements were required by the French though the latter were relieved by the British taking over the additional area from Loos to a point south of Arras, thereby freeing the French tenth army for service elsewhere.

The stagnation on the British front was most opportune in permitting of the training of the new British army officers and men. All formations, especially the newly created ones, were instructed in every phase of warfare. Schools for young staff officers, regimental officers and candidates for commissions were in full swing, and every effort was made to perfect the training received in England.

The stagnation on the front was not easy for either officers or men; in fact those months proved to be the hardest of the whole campaign. Each day the desultory warfare of bomb, sniper and shell took its toll of men—perhaps on the average of 500 a day. Day by day the ambulances drew up at the hospitals with their quota of wounded.

On the British western front there were numerous small battles. On February 12th after an artillery bombardment an infantry attack was made upon the British near the canal in the Ypres salient. On February 14th after heavy artillery bombardment our positions were attacked at Hooge and Sanctuary Woods without success.

At the bluff further south a bombardment and infantry attacks won some of our trenches. Seventeen days later the Third British division won back all the lost ground and some of the German line. On March 27th six huge mines were exploded by the British near St. Eloi and the craters occupied by us. Weeks of confused fighting followed at this point which will be found described more fully in the battle of the Craters by the Canadians.

On April 19th the Germans attacked at Wieltze and on the Ypres-Langemarck road, and two days later were ousted from the trenches captured by them.

On April 27th two German gas attacks were made near Loos and the infantry attack following was completely shattered by Irish troops. Two days later the enemy attempted a similar attack at Hulluch but the gas blew back upon the Germans driving them from their trenches, whereat the British troops manned the parapets and laughed hilariously. On the same day a gas attack near Messines was followed by eight infantry attacks. Sleeping six miles behind the scene of the attack on that occasion, I was wakened by clouds of gas in great concentration pouring into my room. The gas was strong enough to kill the roses and other foliage in the garden behind the house.

On May 15th we blew some mines on Vimy Ridge and occupied the German front line only to be driven out by heavy artillery fire and infantry attacks on May 21st.

These scattered actions came to a head at Hooge in the Ypres salient on June 2d. There, as stated, the Third Canadian divisional front line was obliterated and their position taken on a front of one and a half miles. The Canadians counter-attacked next day but could not hold the area regained. On June 13th the First Canadian division took back all the ground lost a few days before.

Meanwhile the stupendous contest at Verdun had been going on drawing to it all the enemy reserves as von Falkenhayn and the Crown Prince strove desperately for the little town which would spell victory for them. And meanwhile the British perfected their war machine and made preparations for that great offensive to be known as the battle of the Somme.

THE GLORIOUS DEFENCE OF VERDUN

In March, 1916, as I skirted the British and French fronts on the road to Paris I passed through numerous little white-washed French villages each with its quota of French soldiers in sky-blue uniform and service caps resting in billets. These sturdy soldiers sitting around in the spring sunshine or chatting in groups smoking cigarettes were always ready to make friends, and at a suggestion of a smile their faces would positively beam. Like the Highlanders of Scotland these Celts were the kindest of gentlemen behind the lines and veritable demons in battle. Along the roads we passed grey columns of transport, driving furiously through clouds of dust, carrying munitions, food and other necessaries to the French front lines. Everybody seemed to be self-possessed yet at the time France was in the throes of a life and death struggle. In Paris business went on as usual, the cafés were thronged at nights and those theatres that were open were packed with citizens.

About sixty miles away huge masses of German artillery hammered the French lines at Verdun in a supreme effort to break through to Paris. The German Crown Prince, with the co-operation of von Falkenhayn, the chief of the German general staff, was making a great effort to retrieve a military reputation long since sadly tarnished. The French were perfectly certain that the Germans would never break through for they had taken their measure accurately.

"They shall not pass," ("*Ils ne passeront pas,*") was the expression of conviction in the mouths of every patriot—a conviction that was to be fully realized.

Twenty miles from Verdun were the rich iron mines of the French Briey basin which supplied three-fourths of the steel required by Germany and Austria, and there was the dual object of making this district safe.

The Kaiser had decided, in spite of the opposition of Von Hindenburg and Von Ludendorff (who promptly resigned), that the campaign designed to finally destroy the Russian army should be postponed. Accordingly Von Falkenhayn robbed every other front of men and ammunition, gathered together artillery in quantities never before conceived of and began deliberately to blast his way through the French lines in the Verdun salient. In all, Germany seemed to have brought one hundred and eighteen divisions or two and a half millions of men to the Franco-British-Belgian front for the great offensive.

On February 19th German guns began registering and two days later a thousand field guns began a general bombardment while heavy howitzers concentrating on small sectors completely obliterated them. In this way the enormous force of heavy artillery smashed the whole of the French front line section by section. When the area had been thoroughly pulverized with shells patrols of German infantry advanced apparently in the belief that no living thing could have escaped that withering blast. The German plan was to use vast quantities of shells to save their own infantry and destroy the French. But General Castelnau, the acting commander-in-chief, did not play up to the German plan but withdrew his men from the advance and support lines until only a thin covering remained. The result was that remarkably few French troops were exposed to the devastating tempest of shells and those were largely machine gunners hidden in dugouts at some distance from the photographed and registered positions being shelled. The famous French 75's which the French gunners handled like Maxims had been carefully concealed.

As these German patrols advanced they were cut down by the French machine guns and 75's. Bombing parties and sappers shared their fate and finally the green grey waves of infantry were caught and swept away.

The fourteen German divisions that had forced their way to Douaumont Fort were increased to twenty-five divisions. In April five more divisions were thrown in. The wastage of life had been tremendous; the expenditure of shells exceeded the output of the German factories and the rifling of the great guns was wearing out yet the position was not won.

All through the summer the German waves broke in vain against the twenty-five miles of Verdun fortifications while the marvellous French artillery and French machine guns continued to mow down the German regiments. General Joffre had refused the offer of Sir Douglas Haig, the British commander-in-chief, to make a great counter-offensive on the British front and thereby relieve the pressure at Verdun. Instead of sending a telegram that would send a million British troops against the German lines and compel Von Falkenhayn to redistribute his troops, his guns and his shells, Joffre sent reassuring messages to Sir Douglas Haig assuring him that all was going well.

In the autumn the French under General Nivelle suddenly struck back and directed a series of attacks against the German forces on both sides of the Meuse. On October 24th a final grand attack resulted in the recapture of Fort Douaumont followed on November 2d by the recapture of Fort Vaux, ending the most glorious effort in the magnificent military history of France.

In this long and bloody conflict German arms suffered a disastrous defeat with the loss of thousands of men, and though she inflicted severe casualties on France she failed in her effort to bleed France white. Thereafter the great burden of the war in the west and the larger share of the casualties was to be shouldered by Great Britain whose armies had now become a mighty force.

AUSTRIAN ATTACK IN TRENTINO

In the spring of 1916 the Archduke Charles, heir to the Austrian throne, had gathered an army of a million men in the Trentino of which 400,000 were combatants. Large numbers of batteries had also been collected for the attack which was designed to take the plain of Venetia, through which ran the two main railway communication lines to the Isonzo.

On May 14th the attack opened with a bombardment of more than 2,000 guns on a thirty-mile front; it literally blasted away the Italian front lines. On May 20th after severe fighting Cadorna slowly fell back while his reserve army of half a million men was assembling at Vicenzo. Week after week desperate fighting had been going on, but the enemy was held, and on June 3d General Cadorna announced that the Austrian offensive had been checked.

The Austrian attack in the Trentino had deferred for the time Italy's main offensive. It had cost the Italians many men but it awakened Italy to the fact that she was at war. A new cabinet was formed under Signor Boselli while all Italy felt proud that her army had been able to hold the Austrians and would presently drive them back.

CHAPTER XVII

The Battle of Jutland.

That great American writer on the value of Sea Power—Captain Mahan—established the thesis that in war the nation possessing the greater sea power is likely to win.

Without further preliminary it may be claimed that the British fleet proved the insuperable obstacle to Germany's plan of world domination. Steadily and irresistibly it closed up the German streams of supply of food, raw materials, metals and other essentials upon which German life depended, and made it possible for the Allies to achieve the final victory.

Before a blow had been struck the British navy had assured to the Allies the following vital results:

1. The High Seas Fleet of Germany, costing her $1,500,000,000, had been driven into its strongly fortified ports.

2. Five million five hundred thousand tons of German shipping and 1,000,000 tons of Austrian shipping were driven off the high seas, or captured.

3. The oversea trade of Germany and Austria had been strangled.

4. The German oversea empire had been torn from them.

5. Two million enemy subjects of military age abroad were prevented from joining the enemy.

6. Ocean communication with the markets of the world were closed to the enemy and kept open to the Allies.

Anticipating a little, it may be said that the allied cause could be carried on only through the protection afforded by the British fleet. Every man, every gun, every shell, every pound of supplies shipped to the fields of France, Belgium, Italy and other fronts, was possible because the British navy held the seas. The transportation of millions of soldiers to France and other theatres of war; the carrying of hundreds of thousands of enthusiastic volunteers from the British colonies to Europe; the feeding of the millions of allied soldiers in Europe, and the prevention of famine among their civilian populations; the purchase and delivery of enormous quantities of munitions, raw materials, machinery and equipment from America and other neutral countries, were rendered possible by the fact that the British Grand Fleet, steaming in the troubled waters of the North Sea, and the lesser fleets in many other seas, watched the great ocean highways and rendered the enemy impotent.

And to anticipate further, it made possible, when the United States threw her weight into the scales with the Allies, the transportation of 2,000,000 American soldiers to France, sixty per cent of which were actually carried in British transports.

With a superior navy, Germany could have blockaded England, brought her to terms quickly, and France, left to fight alone, would have proved a comparatively easy victim. Germany well knew the necessity of a powerful fleet and had, for fourteen years, laboured to create one that would approximate that of Great Britain.

Von Tirpitz, the German naval minister, had, with the aid of Emperor William, been able to enthuse the German nation with the ambition to become a mighty sea power and conquer the hated British. The achievement of Von Tirpitz was a marvellous performance, for in fourteen years he was actually able to evolve a navy more than sixty per cent (on paper) as powerful as the whole of that of Great Britain, but, actually, as events proved, much superior to Great Britain's fleet in mechanical firing devices, armour protection and armour-piercing type of shell.

The strength of the German High Sea Fleet and the British Grand Fleet at the beginning of the war may be seen by the following comparison taken from Admiral Viscount Jellicoe's book, "The Great Fleet."

	British Grand Fleet.	German High Sea Fleet.
Battleships	28	29
Battle cruisers	4	3
Light cruisers	12	15
Destroyers	42	88

The result of rivalry had been to stimulate the building of ships and greatly enhance the training and spirit of the men, as well as the equipment of the British fleet. In 1914 the British navy had reached a point of efficiency hitherto unprecedented.

The grand fleet, whose object was to attack and destroy the German High Seas Fleet, cruised solely in the North Sea. It consisted of one battle cruiser squadron, four battle squadrons, three cruiser squadrons, two destroyer flotillas and mine-laying gunboats. There were also two destroyer flotillas based on Harwich, under Commodore Tyrwhitt, which it was hoped might, in the event of a general engagement, join the grand fleet. This combination of the Harwich force with the grand fleet never occurred during the war.

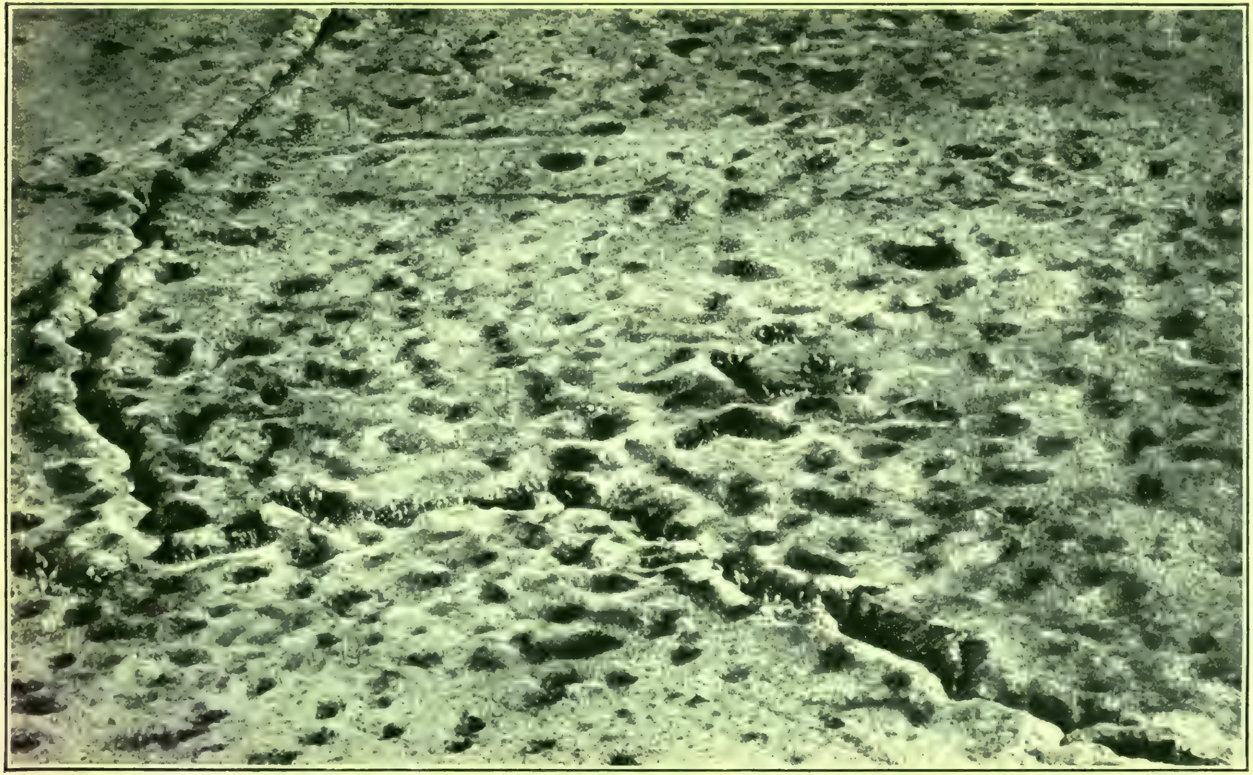
Outside of home waters Britain also maintained fleets in the Mediterranean, in Eastern and Chinese waters, and in Australian, while numerous cruisers and gunboats patrolled the Cape, West Africa and the Western Atlantic.

The combination of the French and British fleet was immediately responsible for the sealing up of the Austrian fleet in the Adriatic, and enabled the Allies to carry on in the Mediterranean without interruption.

The German fleet was unable to issue from the Baltic by the regular passage which was closed by Denmark. Neither could the British enter the Baltic for the same reason. The German fleet could, however, pass to and fro at will from the North Sea to the Baltic through the Kiel Canal, which had been completed a few weeks only before the war.

The plan of the German admiral was to avoid open battle until, through submarines and mines, the British power had been sufficiently weakened. The British hope was that the German fleet would risk a great battle, but in this, until 1916, they were to be bitterly disappointed.

The old type of sea fighting had long ago disappeared. Steel had replaced wood; high explosives had replaced solid shot; engines had replaced sails; fighting occurred at long range, instead of grappling at close range, with all the excitement of boarding one another. And everything else had changed since the British fleet had last been engaged in a great battle. Overhead were Zeppelins, seaplanes, and aeroplanes, prepared to scout, direct fire and drop bombs, while underseas submarines lurked ready to sink with a single torpedo the finest battleship afloat, and mines were anchored which at a touch would blow a great ship out of the water.



French Official Photograph.

A BATTLE SEEN FROM THE CLOUDS

An airman's view of the advance of allied infantry after a bombardment on the Somme. Soldiers can be seen moving forward up the trench system and occupying the shell holes which pock-mark this much-fought-over ground.

A modern navy had become essentially an organization of engineering skill, operated by engineers and scientists of the highest grade. To pick out a moving object as large as a pin point ten miles off and moving at a speed of perhaps twenty-five or thirty miles an hour, and drop a projectile containing many hundreds of pounds of high explosive upon that object required a skill, a knowledge of mathematics and a poise that could only be obtained by long years of training and experience. Such were the requirements of the modern naval fighting man in the fleet commanded by Sir John Jellicoe.

In this new act of naval science which did not require that peculiar seamanship for which England had been so long famous, it was feared that Germans, with none of the real old-time sailor qualifications would prove the match of the British; and not until the great battle of Jutland was this question finally settled.

With the exception of a few vessels, the Germans ceased to exist on the high seas. During the first week of the war the German warships *Goeben* and *Breslau* were in the Mediterranean off the Algerian coast. Attempting to escape into the Atlantic they were turned back by the British fleet off Gibraltar, and made off eastward, passing through the Dardanelles to Constantinople. Everywhere else in the empire German merchantmen were seized, and hundreds of ships were captured on the high seas.

For nearly two years the British Grand Fleet had been waiting for the German High Sea Fleet to come out and give battle. In the battle of the Bight, on August 28, 1914, the British fleet had encountered cruisers only. In the raid on Hartlepool in December, Sir David Beatty, on account of fog, just failed to intercept the enemy ships, and in the battle of the Doggerbank, on January 24, 1915, an accident to his ship, necessitating his transfer to a destroyer, prevented him from destroying the fleet of enemy battle cruisers. On every occasion in which they had been sighted the German warships had turned and fled.

Month after month the various squadrons of the Grand Fleet had rehearsed their parts. Special gun practice had taken place at sea and special torpedo boat manœuvres worked out with the object of repelling torpedo attacks.

Part of the routine of the Grand Fleet consisted in periodic sweeps of the North Sea by the Battle Cruiser Fleet under Sir

David Beatty. The battle cruisers were especially suited for such work, for, in addition to being very large and lightly armoured, they were exceedingly fast and were equipped with the longest range guns. In case of hostile ships being sighted the great speed of the battle cruisers enabled them to keep the enemy under observation and at the same time to shell them at long range.

On May 30, 1916, the British Grand Fleet, in two divisions, left its northern bases on one of its customary sweeps. On the north was the battle fleet under Sir John Jellicoe. With the battle fleet was one battle cruiser squadron, three cruiser squadrons, and three destroyer flotillas.

The battle fleet under Sir John Jellicoe was in six divisions, disposed as follows:

First Division—*King George V* (F), *Ajax*, *Centurion*, *Erin*.
Second Division—*Orion* (F), *Monarch*, *Conqueror*, *Thunderer*.
Third Division—*Iron Duke* (FF), *Royal Oak*, *Superb* (F), *Canada*.
Fourth Division—*Benbow* (F), *Bellerophon*, *Temeraire*, *Vanguard*.
Fifth Division—*Colossus* (F), *Collingwood*, *Neptune*, *St. Vincent*.
Sixth Division—*Marlborough* (F), *Revenge*, *Hercules*, *Agincourt*.
F—Flagship; FF—Fleet Flagship.

They were screened by the Fourth, Eleventh and Twelfth Flotillas with the Fourth Light Cruiser Squadron three miles ahead of the battle fleet.

The cruisers with one destroyer to each cruiser steamed sixteen miles ahead of the battle fleet, the cruisers being eight miles apart in the following order from east to west:

First Line: *Cochrane*, *Shannon*, *Minotaur*, *Defence*, *Duke of Edinburgh*, *Black Prince*.

Warrior (in the immediate rear).

Hampshire (six miles astern).

To the south under Sir David Beatty steamed the battle cruiser fleet consisting of two battle cruiser squadrons, a battle squadron, four vessels of the Queen Elizabeth class, three light cruiser squadrons and four destroyer flotillas. The two divisions of the Grand Fleet were not sharply defined as battle squadrons and battle cruiser squadrons, since Sir John Jellicoe had with him one squadron of battle cruisers, while Sir David Beatty had a squadron of the largest battleships.

On the same day that the British Grand Fleet put to sea the

German High Sea Fleet also left its harbours and sailed northward. For some time it had been confidently predicted in Great Britain, though without any definite information on which to base the prediction, that the German navy would be forced to come out and fight. Whether the German fleet had been driven forth by public opinion or hoped to catch part of the British fleet and destroy it through overwhelming numbers, or whether it had the greater object of escorting cruisers which were to become raiders after dashing into the Atlantic we have, as yet, no knowledge.

About midday Sir David Beatty's fleet turned northward to join that of Sir John Jellicoe,when, at 2.30, the *Galatea*,the flagship of the First Light Cruiser Squadron, reported enemy vessels to the east.

Sir David Beatty at once changed his course to southeast, in order to separate the enemy from his base. At 2.35 observers on the *Lion* saw heavy smoke to the east and northeast.

The First and Third Light Cruiser Squadrons then spread in a screen before the battle cruisers, while a seaplane sent up from the mother ship *Engadine* (Campania) identified and reported the presence of the enemy. Five minutes later, in battle formation, Sir David Beatty came in sight of the German Admiral von Hipper's five battle cruisers.

Sir David Beatty had previously missed by a slender margin the opportunity of destroying the finest of the German ships. He now chose the course which was not only heroic but strategically sound. Though he possessed the advantage for the moment the enemy was clearly falling back upon the main fleet so that shortly the odds would be reversed. Nevertheless he took the chance.

At this time the German admiral was steering east-southeast in the direction of his base and Beatty took the same course some 23,000 yards distant. The fleet of Sir David was led by the Second Light Cruiser Squadron with two destroyer flotillas; then followed the First Battle Cruiser Squadron led by the admiral's flagship *Lion*, the Second Battle Cruiser Squadron, and then the Fifth Battle Squadron.

At a range of 18,500 yards the battle opened, the fleets proceeding at a speed of twenty-five knots. Almost immediately a shot struck the *Indefatigable* and she blew up. At 4.18 a German battle cruiser was set on fire and shortly after the *Queen Mary* was also hit, and blew up. This left Sir David Beatty only four battle cruisers.

Meanwhile, as the great fighting machines tore southward at racing speed, eight destroyers of the Thirteenth Flotilla had moved forward to make a torpedo attack. They met fifteen destroyers and a cruiser of the enemy engaged on the same mission and drove them back. Two German destroyers and one British destroyer were sunk and one British destroyer put out of action.

The Second Light Cruiser Squadron, which all the time had been scouting ahead of the battle cruisers, reported the proximity of the German Battle Fleet at 4.38. Immediately Admiral Beatty turned northward in an effort to lead the whole German fleet toward Sir John Jellicoe. Since Zeppelins were useless for observation purposes that day the presence of Sir John Jellicoe's fleet was unknown to Admiral von Hipper and he pursued Beatty evidently thinking he had caught him alone.

Beatty was now fighting against heavy odds for he had only eight first-class ships against nineteen German and Sir John Jellicoe was still fifty miles off. But he had the speed of the enemy—a vital factor. Beatty had succeeded in getting his battle cruisers on the bow of the enemy, who could not change his direction without exposing himself to enfilading fire from the British battle cruisers at the head of the line.

At this time the weather changed for the worse. The enemy was shrouded in mist while the British ships were silhouetted against a clear sky. Notwithstanding, the British gunnery was effective and a German battle cruiser was compelled to fall out of line. Beatty hauled his course gradually to the northeast in order that Sir John Jellicoe, who was then not far off, would be able to strike to the best advantage. At 5.56 he sighted the British Battle Fleet, at once changed his course to the east and increased his speed, forcing the enemy to a course on which with a fair amount of luck he could be overwhelmed by the British fleet.

When Sir John Jellicoe knew that the enemy had been sighted he at once proceeded at full speed to join battle with him, several of his ships exceeding their trials speeds. The battle fleet was led by Rear-Admiral Hood's Third Battle Cruiser Squadron. At 6.10 P. M. Hood sighted Beatty's squadron and brought his own squadron into action at a range of 8,000 yards. In a few minutes his flagship, *Invincible,* blew up at the head of the British line and with her perished the heroic admiral.

The First and Second Cruiser Squadrons had now come into action and had sunk one enemy cruiser. The destroyer *Shark* which had accounted for two enemy destroyers was herself torpedoed and sunk.

Sir Robert Arbuthnot, in command of the First Cruiser Squadron, owing to the mist, got between the British and German battle fleets and lost the *Defence* and *Black Prince* while the *Warrior* was disabled. This gallant admiral signalled a cheerful apology to his fleet as he went down.

Meanwhile one of Beatty's destroyers, the *Onslow,* attacked first an enemy cruiser, then their battle cruisers. After being struck by a heavy shell she discharged three torpedoes at the enemy battle fleet and was then taken in tow by *Defender,* who was herself damaged. Sir David Beatty wrote: "I consider the performances of these two destroyers to be gallant in the extreme and I am recommending Lieutenant-Commander J. C. Tovey of *Onslow,* and Lieutenant-Commander L. R. Palmer of *Defender* for special recognition."

At 6.16 a signal was made to the battle fleet to form line of battle on the port-wing column on a course southeast by east.

The question and manner of deployment was of vital importance. To form on the starboard-wing column would bring the fleet into action at the earliest possible moment. Sir John Jellicoe decided that such an action possessed the obvious disadvantage that the German destroyers would be ahead of their battle fleet and in the mist would have a great opportunity for torpedo attacks during deployment. There was also great danger of the First Battle Squadron, especially the *Marlborough* division, being severely handled by the concentrated fire of the German fleet before the remaining divisions could get into line. The First Battle Squadron contained some of the older lightly armoured ships. It would require four minutes for each division to come into line and a further interval for their gun fire to become effective. Finally the van of the enemy would have a considerable overlap on the British.

At the moment of deployment the van of the enemy's battle fleet was 13,000 yards away. The fleets were converging rapidly and the High Seas Fleet would have possessed a great advantage in engaging effectively, first the unsupported starboard division, and subsequently succeeding divisions as they formed up astern, had the line of battle formed on the starboard-wing column.

At 6.50 Sir David Beatty had turned the German leading vessels to the southeast. In order were the First, Second and Third Battle Cruiser Squadrons, followed by the Second, Fourth and First Battle Squadrons. On account of the weather the single line formation was adopted because operation by independent division was impossible. The Fifth Battle Squadron had formed astern of the line and *Warspite*, having had her steering gear damaged, ran around in a circle firing at every enemy in sight, while she herself came under a furious bombardment which, curiously enough, did her little harm. The enemy, now outnumbered, had, by the skillful strategy of the British admirals, been separated from their base and it only needed a little luck and some daylight to give the British fleet the opportunity for which it had long prayed, of blowing the entire German fleet out of the water.

The German Admiral von Scheer, however, had no desire to take any further chances and steamed southward at full speed. Unfortunately the mist greatly reduced the visibility and made accurate firing exceedingly difficult, though what light there was favoured the British. The German battleships had become targets for the British battle cruisers and whenever the light permitted great shells were plumped into them with amazing accuracy.

At 7.14 two German battle cruisers and two battleships were sighted and one was set on fire. Under cover of a smoke screen from German destroyers they turned away and were again lost to sight.

At 8.30 three enemy battleships were again sighted of which all three were set on fire and again lost in the mist.

At 6.17 the British Battle Fleet had become engaged with enemy battleships which were now concentrating their attention upon escaping. In the short time in which they were visible the enemy battleships were heavily hit by the British while the German fire was feeble. Though the weather was particularly favourable for torpedo attacks the Germans succeeded in making only one hit—on the *Marlborough*, which however remained in action.

The First, Second and Fourth Battle Squadrons had also been engaged with the enemy and had made wonderful practise on enemy battleships. The cruiser squadron had also been hard at it, attacking destroyers and making torpedo attacks; four enemy destroyers were sunk in these actions.

At nine o'clock darkness was falling rapidly and the enemy had completely disappeared. It was impossible for the British fleet to force an action in a sea swarming with torpedo boats and underwater craft. Sir John Jellicoe knew that the German star shells and searchlights were greatly superior to his own—so good, in fact, that their star shells brilliantly illuminated our vessels while theirs remained in darkness—and that he would only be courting disaster by attempting to force the issue under the circumstances. Accordingly he made the necessary dispositions for the night, placing the torpedo flotillas where they would protect the fleet from destroyer attacks, and manœuvring his fleet so as to keep between the enemy and the enemy's base.

During the night the battle was carried on exclusively by the lighter craft. With Sir David Beatty were the First and Third Light Cruiser Squadrons, which protected the head of the British line from torpedo attack and also the First, Ninth, Tenth and Thirteenth Destroyer Flotillas.

The Second Light Cruiser Squadron and the First and Thirteenth Destroyer Flotillas were at the rear of the battle line with the Fifth Battle Squadron. During the night the enemy began slipping past under cover of darkness and numerous isolated engagements took place. The Second Light Cruiser Squadron repelled a torpedo attack on the Queen Elizabeths of the Fifth Battle Squadron. The *Southampton* and *Dublin* became engaged with five enemy cruisers. At 11.30 several heavy ships slipped through the British line in the fog. Another battleship steamed by at full speed and was apparently torpedoed. At 12.30 another large vessel passing astern of the Fifth Battle Squadron opened fire on British vessels.

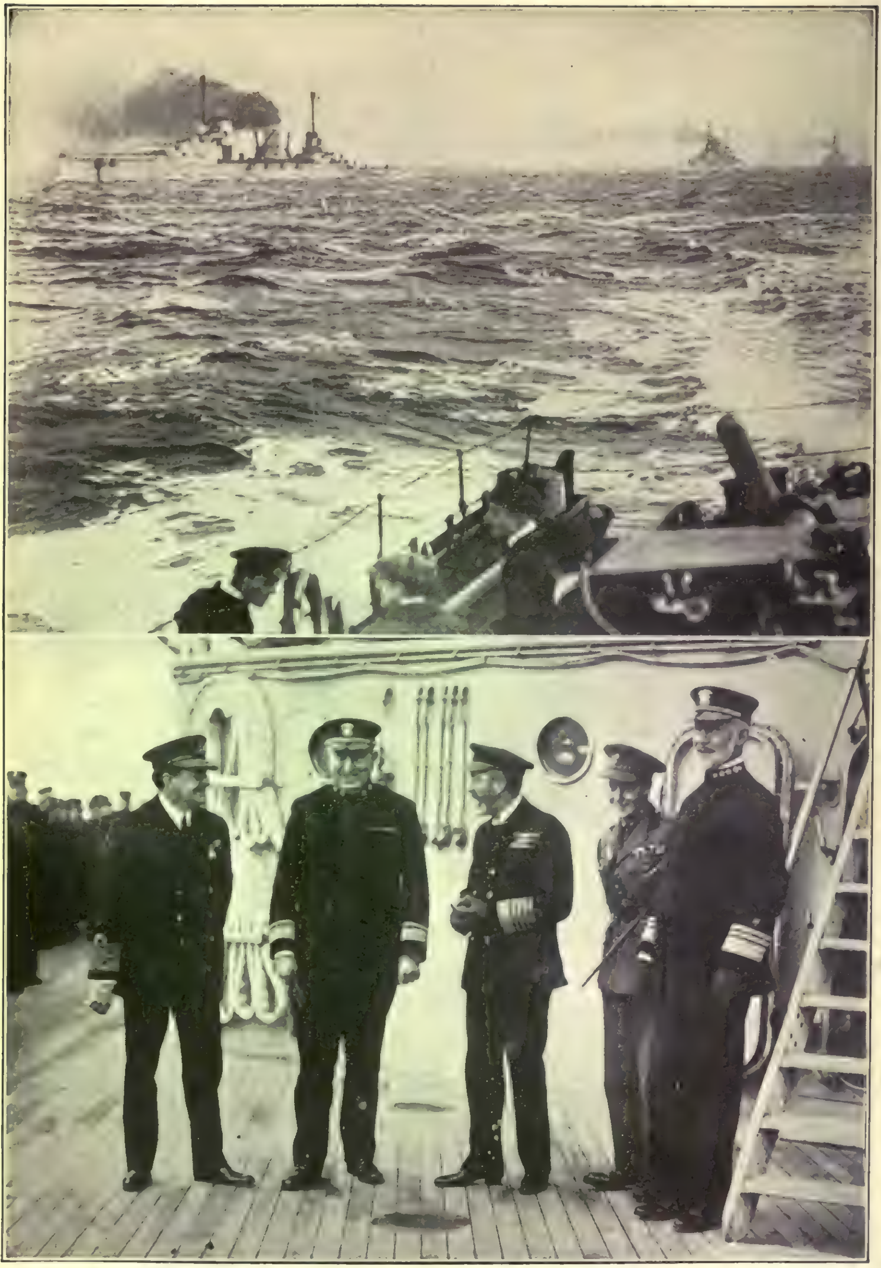
The principal torpedo attacks were made by the Fourth, Eleventh and Twelfth Destroyer Flotillas which were with Sir John Jellicoe. The Twelfth Flotilla attacked a squadron of six large vessels of the Kaiser class, one of which was blown up and another hit. The Fourth Flotilla had the heaviest fighting and lost one destroyer. This wonderful class of fighting ship won great glory. In the words of Sir John Jellicoe "They surpassed the very highest expectations that I had formed of them." It was a marvellous performance for those who saw the battle. German flares and searchlights at times made the placid sea as light as day; the heavy crashes of salvos and exploding shells deafened the ear and their angry red flashes lit up the sky for miles.

When dawn appeared there was no enemy fleet in sight. It had slipped through the British lines or scattered and the German warships, like a broken flight of wild geese, were steaming full speed for the safety of their harbours. At 4 A. M. a Zeppelin passed over and probably warned the enemy of the location of the British fleet. The visibility was less than four miles and Sir John Jellicoe waited for the enemy to reappear out of the mist and attack. At 11 A. M. he was reluctantly forced to the conclusion that the High Sea Fleet had gone home. Accordingly the British Grand Fleet, after picking up any survivors that could be found, returned to its bases, where it arrived next morning, fueled and replenished its stores of ammunition and was ready for action again at 9.30 that night.

What constitutes a victory? The Germans immediately claimed a great victory, stating in support of their claim the greater tonnage and number of vessels sunk of the British fleet, and it must be admitted the claim appeared valid. But if the British navy had been defeated why did it still continue to sweep the North Sea while the German High Sea Fleet remained at home in its defended harbours?

The British Fleet was the one and only factor that was vital to the British Empire. It was true, as Admiral Jellicoe stated, that the British fleet was deficient in destroyers and light cruisers; her shells were inferior to the German's which exploded after they had pierced the armour plate instead of upon impact as the British shells did; the German gun laying devices and searchlights were superior to the British; the enemy vessels were far better protected by armour than were the British, and the Germans had the advantage of Zeppelins for observation purposes.

As a result of the use of armour piercing-shells fine vessels like *Queen Mary* and *Indefatigable* when hit in a vital spot blew up and disappeared in a few seconds, while German vessels struck much more frequently survived and were able to wing their way homeward. As a matter of fact all the German battle cruisers and several of their battleships were so severely battered as to be incapable of further fighting for several months. No mention was made in the



© *International Film Service.*

SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN HIGH SEAS FLEET

Actual photograph showing the greatest naval surrender in history—the German fleet arriving to surrender. *Below,* The commanders of the British and American fleets, Admirals Beatty and Rodman, the King of England and the Prince of Wales viewing the surrender.

German official report issued of the loss of the battle cruiser *Lutzow*, the light cruiser *Rostock*, the beaching of the *Seydlitz* or of the fact that four battleships had been torpedoed though not sunk. The Germans, also, in order to establish their victory, claimed to have sunk one battleship, one armoured cruiser, three light cruisers and five destroyers more than were actually destroyed. The following is a corrected list of the losses incurred by both sides:

GERMAN LOSSES

	Tons
1 Dreadnought	24,000
1 Deutschland	13,200
1 Battle cruiser *Lutzow*	28,000
5 Light cruisers (Rostock class)	24,500
6 Destroyers	4,800
1 Submarine	800
Total	95,300

(*Seydlitz*, 24,610 tons, beached)

BRITISH LOSSES

	Tons
Queen Mary—battle cruiser	27,000
Indefatigable " "	18,750
Invincible " "	17,250
Defence—armoured cruiser	14,600
Black Prince " "	13,550
Warrior " "	13,550
Tipperary—destroyer	1,430
Ardent "	935
Fortune "	935
Shark "	935
Sparrowhawk "	935
Nestor "	1,000
Nomad "	1,000
Turbulent "	1,430
Total	113,300

Wilhelmshaven was closed to the world and for many months it was guarded with jealous care while the battered German fleet was undergoing its much-needed repairs. Even Captain Persius, the most reputable German naval critic, wrote: "On June 1st it was clear to every thinking person that this battle must and would be the last one."

Captain Persius also said, that the hope that the German fleet would be able in a second battle to beat the British depended upon the bluff and lies of the naval authorities. In the battle of Jutland he declared that the German fleet escaped destruction partly by good leadership and partly by favourable weather conditions. Had the weather been clear or Admiral Von Scheer's leadership less able the destruction of the whole German navy would have resulted. The long-range British guns would have completely smashed the lighter armoured German ships. As it was the loss of the German fleet was enormous.

It is interesting to note in conclusion that Captain Persius approved of the navy refusing to go out to fight towards the end of the war, as it would have been a waste of life without hope of success.

It was surely a weird victory which compelled the victors to remain till the end of the war within the shelter of Helgoland while the so-called "vanquished" fleet continued to patrol and control the high seas more surely and powerfully than ever before.

The damage received by the vessels of the British fleet was quickly made good and the majority of the small number affected were completed within a month. Even the *Marlborough* which had been torpedoed and sustained the greatest amount of damage rejoined the fleet in August.

The passive or defensive rôle of the German fleet of remaining in its harbours continued without intermission, with the result that the morale of the men declined, and a series of mutinies broke out in 1917 and 1918 which culminated in the final great mutiny of November, 1918.

Admiral Jellicoe has been freely criticized for his action in turning to the left (deploying on the port-wing column) instead of to the right as the British Battle Squadron came within effective range. Admiral Jellicoe stated that had he turned to the right the awkward manœuvre would have thrown the British Battle Fleet into great confusion, and an enemy concentration of fire on the turning point would have been very effective upon our ships.

At the same time the British Battle Fleet would have been in a position where it would be open to attack by destroyers during the turning movement. None of these disadvantages occurred by turning to the left.

It is possible that the decision of Admiral Jellicoe saved the

German fleet from absolute destruction. On the other hand, believing that an invasion of England was always possible during the war and that it was essential to preserve the strength of the fleet to prevent that invasion, he felt the necessity of avoiding battle till he could attack with less risk. The few minutes necessary for deployment might have given the enemy the opportunity of sinking a large number of our capital ships and Jellicoe preferred to risk his own reputation rather than the safety of the British Empire.

The battle of Jutland was the most important event to the Allies of the whole war. On land it is usually possible to make good the losses which have been incurred; it may even be possible to convert a defeat into a victory through skilled strategy. But in a naval battle the losses cannot be made good for years, and a decisive and overwhelming defeat means the complete destruction of the beaten fleet. It is apparent that had the British Fleet been wiped out or badly crippled at the battle of Jutland, Great Britain would have been open to invasion, her lines of communication would have been cut through loss of control of the Channel, her reserves of men would have been isolated in England, the British army in France would have been deprived of food and munitions, Great Britain and the allied nations would have been separated from their storehouses of food in America and the war would have rapidly come to a conclusion through a general surrender to Germany. Admiral Jellicoe may be open to criticism but it is safe to say that the historian in future years will rank his action in playing safe as the work of a great man and will thank God that that type of man happened to be in command of the British Fleet at the time.

DEATH OF LORD KITCHENER

On June 5th Lord Kitchener arrived at Scapa en route to Archangel. He dined with Admiral Jellicoe aboard the flagship *Iron Duke* and listened with much interest to the story of the recent battle off Jutland. The weather which had been bad gradually became worse and after some consultation it was decided that the *Hampshire* should pass northward close inshore rather than by the route further to the west. The route decided upon, it was thought would enable destroyers to keep up with the *Hampshire* better than in the rougher open sea and besides there would be less probability of the route being mined. Mine sweeping had been out of the question for three or four days. Earl Kitchener, accompanied by his staff, Brigadier-General Ellishaw, Sir F. Donaldson, Colonel Fitzgerald, Mr. O'Beirne of the Foreign Office, Mr. Robertson of the Munitions Department, and Second Lieutenant McPherson of the Cameron Highlanders, went aboard the *Hampshire* at 4 o'clock and sailed at 5.30 P. M. accompanied by two destroyers. The orders were for the *Hampshire* to proceed at a speed of at least sixteen knots and to send the destroyers back if they could not maintain the *Hampshire's* speed.

At 7 P. M. the destroyers were ordered back because they were unable to face the heavy seas. Between 7.30 and 7.45 the *Hampshire* struck a mine about one and a half miles off shore between the Brough of Bersay and Marwick Head and sank in fifteen minutes. The accident was seen from the shore and a telephone message to the vice-admiral commanding the Orkney Islands brought patrol vessels to the spot, while Admiral Jellicoe sent destroyers to the scene. All night long the waters were searched and many dead bodies were picked up or drifted ashore. The only survivors were twelve men who floated ashore on a raft. The body of Lord Kitchener was not recovered. Though orders had been given by Captain Saville to prepare a boat for Lord Kitchener and his staff it was impossible to lower any boats in such a sea. When last seen Earl Kitchener of Khartoum, Field-Marshal of the British Army, was on deck quietly talking to a companion.

Any doubt as to whether the loss of the *Hamsphire* was due to a mine or submarine was set at rest by mine sweepers, which discovered other moored mines in the neighbourhood of the type laid down by enemy submarines.

The news brought mourning to the whole empire, and all classes and condition of people were affected by a real grief. He was beyond doubt the most dominant personality in the empire at the time; his popular prestige was immense and he had an air of mystery which made him something of an unreal character to the public. His strong face, his wonderful eyes, his silence, his fine presence raised him to a place where he had become almost a figure of romance. To the French people he was a magnificent, god-like genius—the great Kitchener, the austere and silent soldier, the woman-hater, a man of granite and steel who could accomplish anything.

Behind him lay many proud achievements. The conquest of the Sudan, a wonderfully successful administration of the Egyptian protectorate, the completion of the South African campaign and, above all, the organization of the British Empire for the great war, are mighty achievements which will make him live for all time.

TRIBUTES TO THE GREAT SOLDIER

The popular impression of Lord Kitchener is that he was a strong, stern man, hard and unbending. But those who knew him well do not confirm that impression.

General Sir William Robertson, British Chief of Imperial General Staff, said:

"It is universally admitted that, if we eventually win this war, as we may hope to do, the chief credit will be due to Lord Kitchener, for he alone, so far as I am aware, grasped from the first the magnitude of the task in front of us. The rapidity and efficiency with which he caused the new armies to be raised, equipped and put into the field were little short of marvellous. . . .

"The stern, ruthless, overbearing character commonly attributed to him had little foundation in fact, so far as my knowledge of the man goes. . . . I have never been brought into contact with one who was more easy to serve. He was a tower of strength when times were bad . . . and those who . . . got behind his naturally shy and forbidding exterior, knew him to be a kind and considerate gentleman, thoroughly honest in word and deed . . ."

General Joffre said: "Right from the outbreak of hostilities, with a vision one must now recognize as prophetic of the necessities of the struggle in which his country was engaged he evolved the scheme of the new military organization that had to be set on foot; with his tenacious will, undaunted by difficulties of organization, instruction, or equipment, he carried through the plan he had set himself to accomplish. Less than a year after the opening of the campaign, divisions of Kitchener's army were measuring forces with the enemy overseas. . . .

"It was under the flag of France that this great Englishman first bore arms. It is for the common glory of France and Great Britain that he has fallen, a soldier. His death has struck me as that of a personal friend and of one of the best friends of my country."

Count Cadorna, chief of the Italian army, wrote: "Even in his appearance he seemed to give a wonderful reproduction of the national character of our Allies beyond the Channel: that combination of calm serenity and unshakable will which they contribute to the great common enterprise. He communicated an impression of controlled strength; one divined that he was inspired by a limitless energy, that no difficulty could stay him until he had reached the goal. . . . The quality which I most appreciated in the late Field-Marshal was the sureness of his judgment. Lord Kitchener gave an unforgetable proof of this quality when, on the outbreak of the war, he showed so clear a vision of the nature of the struggle and of the part in it which England had to play."

CHAPTER XVIII

The Canadian Corps in the Great Somme Offensive

The Somme River winds through the chalk lands of Picardy in a broad valley. The rolling level land of Picardy without a hedge is dotted with little farming communities and little towns. The district is known as Santerre—perhaps from *sang terre*—the land of blood—for it is one of the old bloody cockpits of Europe.

There had been little activity on the Picardy front until the summer of 1916. It was a region where only a great continuous offensive could achieve anything. The British had taken over the line from Arras to the Somme in 1915, and had spent a quiet winter in the trenches—a winter which the Germans had devoted to converting their lines into fortresses almost impregnable.

The Germans had attempted to hold the western front with the minimum number of men and to destroy the Russian armies in the East. In that they failed and the Russian army was still in fighting trim. The Allies were now well supplied with guns and munitions on the western front, their higher commands were cooperating more closely and showed a tendency to concentrate all of their activities in the main theatre of action. To offset the coming allied offensive on all fronts Germany attacked at Verdun hoping to induce the Allies into premature counter-attacks and dissipate their energies. Petain conserved his man-power at Verdun, and Verdun, instead of bleeding France white, as had been the intention, became a trap where Germany was bleeding white.

The Austrian attack in the Trentino had failed, and in the east Russia had put half a million Austrians out of action. Consequently Germany had to despatch divisions from the western front and was now concerned to find sufficient troops to meet the expected allied offensive. The German commander did not have sufficient nerve to fall back and shorten his line, as the situation demanded, because of the moral effect on The Fatherland.

The aim of the Allies in the great Somme offensive was not to capture territory or seize any given positions. Their purpose was to exert a steady pressure on a wide section of the German front. The allied method was to break up the German front by stages after heavy artillery bombardments. Then when a sufficient space had been opened up it would be widened and deepened by renewed bombardments and attacks with fresh infantry divisions. The main object of the allied attack was primarily to bring into action, weaken and destroy the German army. Its subsidiary objects were to weaken the pressure on the French at Verdun and prevent the transference of German troops to the eastern front for use against Brussilov.

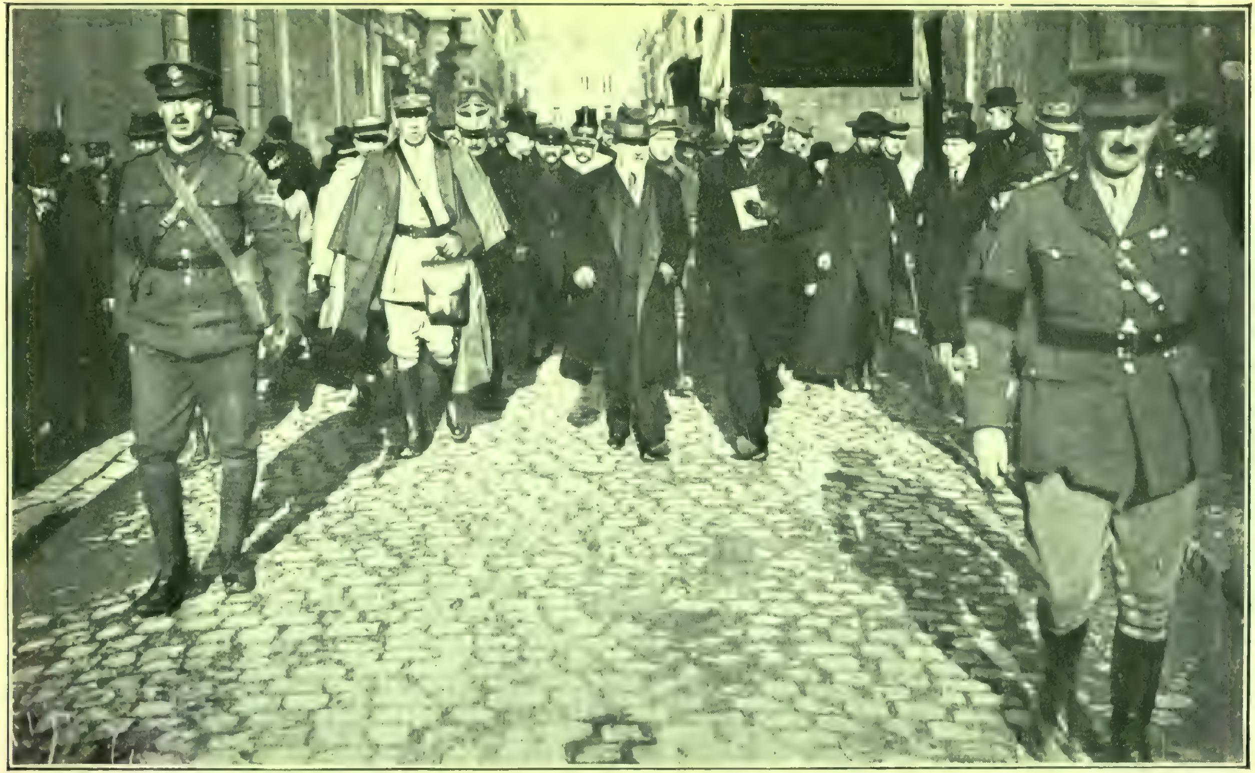
The British armies had now grown from the six divisions composing the original Expeditionary Force to seventy divisions in the field, besides those from the British Colonies. In addition there were enough troops in reserve to supply the wastage for a year. The auxiliary services excelled those of any other combatant and our gunnery had so improved that we could lay down a barrage along any line which could compete with the best. At the second battle of Ypres the Canadians had fired 1,000 shells from a single gun in twenty-four hours, a record that was frequently reached and showed a remarkable adaptation of civilians to a most scientific and difficult profession.

Each original gun had now been replaced by hundreds of all calibres, while trench mortars of a fine new type had been produced in huge numbers. Vast quantities of munitions were being turned out daily in Great Britain and transported to France.

The old Contemptibles had now entirely disappeared and their place taken by a civilian army composed of Territorials, the new army of Kitchener and the various colonial contingents.

The preparations for the great Somme offensive were most elaborate and comprehensive. The roads had to be improved and new ones built, frequently over marshy ground. Scores of miles of railways had to be built. Hundreds of dugouts had to be dug as shelter for troops, dressing stations and magazines for storing munitions, food, water and engineering material. Miles of deep communication trenches, as well as trenches for telephone wires, assembling and assault trenches had to be dug.

To meet the difficulties of supplying water, which was scarce in that region, many wells and borings were sunk and over one hundred pumping plants installed. One hundred and twenty miles



Canadian Official Photograph.

Copyright Reserved.

VICTORIOUS CANADIANS WITH THE PRESIDENT OF FRANCE

M. Poincairé walking through the streets of Valenciennes, which was captured by Canadians on November 10, 1918, accompanied by some of the victors. On the following day our irresistible army entered Mons.

of water mains were laid and everything prepared to extend those mains as the troops advanced.

The front to be attacked by the British running from the south of Gommecourt to the junction with the French at Maricourt was under the command of General Sir Henry Rawlinson with five army corps.

The front, which the French Sixth army of three corps under General Fayolle was to attack, stretched from Maricourt to Fay.

In the middle of June on the whole British front of ninety miles an intermittent bombardment of the German lines began. Raids on the German trenches were numerous; in the week before the attack seventy trench raids were undertaken between Gommecourt and Ypres for the purpose of identifying enemy units and obtaining other information. In the same week gas was discharged by the British at forty different places.

On June 24th the bombardment increased along the whole front and enemy trenches were wiped out at Fricourt, Ypres and elsewhere.

The artillery fire was intensified in the Somme area; and from Mt. Rouge, where I listened to it at nights, it sounded as if several thunderstorms in the south were battling for mastery. The crashes of thousands of guns merging into huge peals of thunder rolled continuously through the night air while the whole sky flickered red with the myriad flashes of the explosions.

Everybody on the front was on the qui vive with a curious exhilaration, for the long-looked-for giant offensive was at hand.

On July 1st every gun on a front of twenty-five miles fired without cessation, while the enemy slopes heaved and spouted from the tornado of bursting shells. At 7.30 a lull in the guns indicated that the range had been lengthened. The bombardment became a barrage, under cover of which along a twenty-five-mile front the allied soldiers had gone over the parapet and were plodding forward toward the German first position.

The enemy had expected an attack on the front from Arras to Albert and was fully prepared for it. In general terms, though the British forces won through at many places in the northern sector, there were many other places where they were held up. In consequence those units which had penetrated the enemy lines, in some cases as much as 2,000 yards, were compelled to fall back and resume their old positions.

In the south the British attack succeeded brilliantly, while for eight miles south of the junction with the British, the French advanced with lightning speed. The Allies had succeeded in completely capturing the first German position from Mametz to Fay on a front of fourteen miles, and in taking 6,000 prisoners.

The second stage of the battle began on July 14th with an attack which drove the enemy from Trones Wood, captured Bazenturle-petit and Wood, High Wood and Delville Wood; while farther south the village of Ovillers was taken. These results were of considerable importance. The enemy's second main system of defence had been captured on a three-mile front, he had been forced back a mile and we had gained possession of the southern crest of the main ridge on a front of 6,000 yards.

On July 18th the enemy counter-attacked on Delville Wood and recaptured part of it. This marked the beginning of a struggle which was not decided in our favour until the 3d of September when we captured Guillemont.

During all this period there were numerous local attacks in which our lines were pushed steadily forward and many important positions captured. Thus the ridge above Martinpuich and Pozieres windmill was reached,—positions which gave us observation over Martinpuich and Courcelette, and the enemy gun positions around Le Sars. The fierceness of the fighting in these attacks may be gathered from the fact that one regiment of the German Guards Reserve Corps, opposite Moquet Farm, lost 1,400 men in fifteen days.

THE TANKS APPEAR

On September 12th a heavy, methodical bombardment of the enemy lines began, which culminated in a general allied infantry attack on September 15th. It was in this attack that the new heavily armoured cars, known as "tanks," were brought into action for the first time, successfully co-operating with the infantry and giving valuable help in breaking down enemy resistance. The advance met with immediate success. At 8.40 A. M. tanks were seen waddling into Flers followed by large numbers of troops. Martinpuich and Courcelette both fell—the latter into the hands of the Canadians. The general result of this new attack was a greater gain than had occurred in the course of a single operation since the offensive started. In one day we had broken through two of the enemy's main defensive systems, had advanced on a front of over six miles to an average depth of a mile and captured 4,000 prisoners.

Tanks made of lath and plaster were left on the skyline during this offensive and succeeded in drawing a furious artillery fire.

THE FOURTH DIVISION IN THE TRENCHES

In the second week in August, 1916, the Fourth Canadian division arrived at Havre from whence it entrained to the Ypres salient. After the usual week of instructional work the division took over the line being vacated by another Canadian division which was about to proceed to the Somme. The Fourth division broke into trench warfare on September 16th–17th by carrying out an elaborate raid in which seven large parties took part with complete success.

On September 21st the Fourth division left the peace and quiet of the salient and proceeded to a training area. On October 3d the division entrained for the Somme and in due course arrived at the Brickfields at Albert in the Somme area, going into the line on October 12th.

Since July 1st the battle of the Somme had been proceeding with varying success. The offensive begun by the British on a twenty-five-mile front had broken through on only an eight-mile front and this sector the British had been pounding wider and deeper with a bull-dog tenacity that was designed to break the heart of the enemy.

The Somme offensive, as has been seen, consisted in reality of a tremendous series of battles in which the hundreds of thousands of soldiers involved were aided by staggering quantities of guns, mortars and mine throwers. England was at last a first-class military power and intended to show that she could smash the German lines when provided with the requisite materials. In the south the French were close to Peronne while the British steadily forged their way ahead to Bapaume.

The methods of offensive were simple. Several days before the proposed date of launching any attack the batteries, side by side and firing in the open, proceeded to pound the German front. Trenches were flattened out, wonderful fortresses of concrete and steel shattered and barbed wire entanglements cut to pieces.

Ever since the Canadian corps had arrived on the Somme in early September they had composed part of the huge battering-ram which hammered away continuously at the enemy defences. In general the progress made by the Canadians by bitter fighting had been slow until the brilliant capture of Courcelette, on September 15th, by the Second Canadian division.

Much of the work of the First Canadian division consisted in making numerous subsidiary attacks, including unsuccessful ones on Kenora and Regina trenches. These attacks, though not always successful, enabled greater offensives going on at the same time at other parts of the line to achieve their objectives; they invariably meant the hardest kind of fighting and heavy casualties.

THE SECOND DIVISION IN THE BATTLE OF COURCELETTE

The Second Canadian division, which it will be remembered played such a magnificent part in the desperate struggle for the craters at St. Eloi, played a prominent rôle on the Somme.

The battle at Courcelette is to the Second division what Ypres was to the First division. It was a magnificent and brilliant offensive.

On September 15th a thousand guns opened up in the final great bombardment. As the Canadians left their trenches and plodded slowly behind the barrage that churned the ground in front of them, the enemy machine guns and counter-barrage raked huge gaps in their ranks, but the men of the attacking brigades advanced as steadily as though on parade. Preceded by "tanks"—their first appearance on the front—the village and its defences were taken and the position consolidated. The tanks did good work in enfilading trenches, routing out machine-gun nests and inspiring fear in the heart of the enemy. The German counter-attacks all failed to retake the position and their losses were very heavy.

Next day the division attempted to extend its frontage and capture additional German trenches and redoubts which were necessary to hold the newly won position.

In this attack the Fifth brigade, which had been so successful the day before, was decimated and two battalions were saved from destruction only by the intervention of the Fourth battalion.

This division later on made an unsuccessful attack on the Kenora and Regina Trench systems with heavy losses.

An attack by the Third division on Sunken Road Trench and the Fabrik Graben was successful in achieving its object. This division was also concerned with one of the unsuccessful attacks on the redoutable Regina Trench. In this fierce struggle the Forty-ninth battalion, the P. P. C. L. I.'s and the R. C. R.'s lost heavily, the Royal Canadian Regiment mustering at the close of the engagement only eighty-one rifles, while the Forty-ninth had lost fifty per cent of its effectives.,

On September 25th a further general attack was launched on the whole front between Martinpuich and the Somme. In this advance Morval and Les Boeufs were taken, while the French to the south carried the village of Rancourt and Fregicourt. Combles thus surrounded was entered by both the British and French at the same time on September 26th. Gueudecourt was taken the same day.

On the same date, September 26th, a general attack was launched against Thiepval and the Thiepval Ridge. The objectives included the fortress known as the Zollern Redoubt, the Stuff Redoubt and the Schwaben Redoubt. This attack was a brilliant success, some 2,300 prisoners being added to the total by this operation in which the Second Canadian brigade of the First division played a notable part.

The Zollern Redoubt at Moquet Farm was the key to the entire chain of redoubts extending from Courcelette to Thiepval. Every device known to military science had been lavished by the enemy on that work, and much bloody fighting, extending over several weeks, had failed to dislodge the Hun. The Zollern Redoubt was in turn protected by the Stuff Redoubt and Hessian Trench systems. After an intensive bombardment of several hours the Canadians attacked at the same time the British were timed to attack Thiepval. A desperate hand-to-hand struggle then ensued in which cold steel came into play, and the Zollern Redoubt and Hessian Trench both remained firmly in Canadian hands.

On October 7th the offensive was renewed and various points along the front were attacked and captured, including Le Sars.

THE FOURTH DIVISION TAKES REGINA TRENCH.

On October 21st the Fourth Canadian division made an attack on the Stuff and Regina Trenches which up to that time had defied all the efforts of the Canadians to take. Two-thirds of the trench attacked was quickly taken and consolidated with small losses to the Canadians. The other third of Regina Trench was subsequently unsuccessfully attacked four days later, but on November 10th the offensive was resumed, and at four o'clock next morning the last of this famous trench, which had cost hundreds of Canadian lives to capture, remained firmly in the hands of the Fourth division.

Desire Trench, another hard proposition, was also captured and consolidated by the Fourth division, bringing to a brilliant close the Canadian operations on the Somme.

Thus the Fourth, like each of the other Canadian divisions, when its turn came made good, and established the right to take its place alongside the other war-battered divisions from Canada.

No brief outline such as has been here attempted can pretend to give any conception of the magnificent courage and heroism displayed by Canadian troops. Fighting over ground torn with shells, wrecked and broken trenches and entangled barbed wire; in mud and filth; amid a continuous hail of rifle and machine gun bullets and showers of shrapnel, each engagement exacted its heavy toll of dead and wounded. Only when some master of language takes up the theme, and with brain aflame with the heroic grandeur of their deeds, will justice be done to the glorious achievements of our Canadian boys during their "blood baths of the Somme," in which 22,000 casualties were sustained.

FINAL STAGE

On the 9th of November the long spell of bad weather took a turn for the better. On November 13th our troops attacked from the east of the Schwaben Redoubt to the north of Serre. In the St. Pierre Division area 1,400 prisoners were taken by one division at a loss of 600 casualties and all of the objectives south of the Ancre River were easily attained. To the north of the river the resistance was stronger. On the second day Beaucourt was taken and our front steadily carried forward up the slopes of the Beaumont Hamel spur. By this operation we had secured the command of the Ancre Valley on both sides of the river where it entered the enemy lines.

This brought the battle of the Somme to a close. The main objects of the offensive had been attained. Verdun had been relieved; the main German forces had been held on the western front, and the enemy's strength had been very considerably worn down. The battle of the Somme, carried out largely under the direction of Sir Henry Rawlinson, brought us a long step forward towards the final victory of the allied cause. Four-fifths of the total number of enemy divisions engaged on the western front, constituting half of the whole German army, were thrown one after another into the Somme battle, some of them twice and some three times. Towards the end, when the weather made further attacks impossible, the German power of resistance had very seriously diminished.

The total number of prisoners taken by us in the great Somme offensive amounted to 38,000 including 800 officers. We also captured 29 heavy guns, 96 field guns and field howitzers, 136 trench mortars and 514 machine guns. And this was accomplished by troops who had been raised and trained during the war, many of them gaining their first experience of war in this offensive.

There never was a higher test of the endurance and resolution of British infantry and it upheld the highest traditions of the British race. The defences assaulted were more formidable than many of the most famous fortresses in history; without the thorough preparation by efficient artillery work they would have remained impregnable. It is, therefore, a remarkable tribute to the adaptability of the British soldier that, in spite of the shortness of training period, the junior officers and men attained a high degree of tactical skill.

THE WAR ON THE EASTERN FRONT

In May, 1916, Cadorna was being hard pressed by the Austrians, the battle of Verdun was in full swing and the army of Great Britain was almost ready for the great Somme offensive. Russia was also ready for the combined allied offensive which was to test the power of the Austro-German armies to the breaking point. It became clear, however, that Italy might be pressed beyond her limit of resistance and it was, therefore, decided to advance the date of the Russian attack in order to relieve the strain upon her.

At the beginning of June the total enemy strength from Pripet southward was under a million men, with a total of 600,000 rifles. The Russian southern army opposite the Austrian force was commanded by Brussilov, who had proved to be a wonderful general. Under him on the 300-mile front from Pripet to Rumania were four armies with which he designed to attack the Austrian line where he had discovered it to be weak.

On June 3d Brussilov began a slow methodical wire-cutting bombardment of the whole front. Twelve hours later the Russians passed through the lanes which had been cut and entered the Austrian trenches on a thirty-mile front between Lutsk and Rovno. Lutsk was taken with great booty, and the Styr and Ikva Rivers crossed. The flanks were then broadened out so that by June 13th a huge semicircle some seventy-five miles across the base had been hollowed out of the Austrian front.

RUSSIA DEFEATS AUSTRIA

By June 16th General Brussilov's armies had advanced fifty miles, captured Dubno and Lutsk and reached the Galician frontier. He had taken 70,000 prisoners, 53 guns, and huge quantities of war materials. Hindenburg did his best to send troops to the aid of the Austrian army for their counter-attack which opened on June 16th. The counter-attack by von Linsenger was designed to stay Brussilov's triumphant advance and create a pause in which the rest of the Austrian front could be reorganized. He succeeded only in postponing the Russian advance for a fortnight.

On June 4th the Russian General Lechitsky also broke through the Austrian line at Okna and in nine days captured 757 officers, 38,000 other ranks and 49 guns. By June 23d he had overrun a whole province, taking 4,000 officers, 194,000 men, 219 guns and 644 machine guns. It constituted one of the most rapid and spectacular advances in the annals of warfare. It was the first time that the Russians had been on anything like terms of equality in regard to artillery and munitions. The marvellous Russian infantry under the masterly skill of Brussilov had won a victory that would, with fair luck, win a strategic decision.

As a result of the June offensive the Russians had driven two great wedges into Volhynia and Bukowina. The Russian front had now to be straightened out and when the German counter-attack on the Stokhod in the second half of June died away, Brussilov began his attack. On July 4th the offensive began and succeeded beyond all expectations so that the Austrian retreat became a rout.

GENERAL SIR WILLIAM R. ROBERTSON
Chief of the Imperial General Staff

GENERAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG
Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in France

In four days an advance of twenty-five miles on a front of forty miles was made, and 12,000 prisoners, 45 guns and much military material had been taken. The enemy resistance then hardened along the marshy Stokhod River and a determined effort was made to prevent any further advance towards the important centre of Kovel about twenty miles away. Brussilov thereupon announced his intentions with regard to the capture of Kovel and made plans for an attack elsewhere.

The enemy was now about to make a powerful attack against the southern side of the Lutsk salient which he hoped would drive Brussilov's armies from Volhynia. The German attack for which twenty divisions were being concentrated was staged for July 18th but Brussilov, getting information of the exact time, launched his attack three days before. Again the Russians were victorious and 12,600 men and 30 guns were added to the Russian bag. Four days later another 12,000 Austrian prisoners were gathered in, while on July 28th still another 14,000 were captured, together with the city of Brody.

The Russian army kept on advancing, and along the line stretching from the Dniester to the Carpathians the Austrian position collapsed with the loss of many thousands of prisoners. As a consequence of all these defeats the Austro-German army was compelled to retreat to a new line. In ten weeks the Russian drive had compelled the enemy to lengthen his front by a hundred miles. The Russians had also taken 300,000 prisoners, while the enemy dead and wounded probably amounted to half a million.

During this offensive the Germans made desperate efforts to re-enforce the crumbling army of their ally and combed the western front for re-enforcements, while at least seven divisions were attracted from the Italian front where the counter-offensive of Cadorna was in progress. As a consequence of this disaster practically all of the chief Austrian commanders were replaced by Germans and the organization of the Central Powers was tested to the limit to save the situation. Von Hindenburg was placed in supreme command of all the German and Austrian armies on the eastern front, and desperate efforts were made to restore the morale of the Austrian troops.

The Russian army, on the other hand, had become a wonderful modern weapon capable of handling the machine-like army of its antagonist. The Russian Chief of Staff Alexeiev, the General Officer Commanding Brussilov and the four army commanders had all shown military qualities of extraordinarily high character, and their brain-work was as much responsible for the Russian success as the marvellous fighting ability of the Russian soldier.

RUMANIA ENTERS THE WAR

For two years Rumania had managed to steer the middle course of neutrality, though pressure had been brought to bear upon her to cast in her lot with Germany. Rumania consists of two rich provinces, Moldavia on the east and Wailachia on the west, with Transylvania projecting into them.

The Rumanian King, Carolus, of German blood and at one time a German army officer, had naturally been in favour of the Central Powers, but the feeling of his country was against them. He died in October, 1914, and was succeeded by his nephew, Ferdinand, who had married a grand-daughter of Queen Victoria. King Ferdinand considered his country's interests impartially, and his wife was openly pro-ally.

In October, 1914, the Rumanian prime minister had evidently received from Russia an offer of Transylvania in return for her neutrality. In January, 1915, when Russia advanced into Austria it looked as though Rumania would enter the war on the allied side. Her reserves were called up and Great Britain lent her $5,000,000 but she needed munitions and there was no possibility of getting them except from Russia, which was also short. The Dardanelles venture failed, Russia retreated and Rumania again marked time until a more favourable opportunity should arise. Both Britain and Austro-Germany were sold cereals during this period by Rumania in her endeavour to keep clear of trouble.

On June 4, 1916, the Russians again began their advance, and on July 1st France and Great Britain commenced the great Somme offensive. Rumania's opportunity again seemed to be approaching; Austria was depleted of men by the Russian offensive and three Bulgarian armies were held by Sarrail at Salonika. By the middle of July the preliminaries had been settled with the Allies and munitions had begun to arrive from Russia. On August 27th Rumania declared war on Austria, Italy declared war on Germany, and next day Germany declared war on Rumania.

The entrance of Rumania added an army of half a million men to the Allies. But Germany had calculated on Rumania's entrance and was prepared for it. Germany counted on making an attack on the new ally that would compel Russia and the western Allies to send help to her and thus disorganize their offensives elsewhere. Rumania, instead of digging in and assuming the defensive rôle until the situation had improved for her cut loose and made a rapid advance into Transylvania. That provided the opportunity Germany was looking for, and after a remarkably brief campaign the Rumanians were crushed in a combined Austro-German-Bulgarian attack.

General Von Falkenhayn, co-operating with Von Mackensen, cut the main line running to Bucharest at Craiova. The Dobrudja region was over-run and the central Rumanian plain open to German advance. The seat of government was transferred from Bucharest to Jassy on November 28, 1916, and on December 6tb Bucharest was entered by Von Mackensen.

CHAPTER XIX

German Methods of Kultur

It may have been no part of the original German plan to ravage Belgium. Had the little country been peaceable and friendly to the invaders all might have gone well with her. The German lines of communication passed through Belgium and they did not wish to waste any considerable part of their fighting troops in guarding them. When Belgium proved hostile German methods were at once set in motion. Military governors were appointed, fines were levied, German currency was employed, clocks were set to German time and everything done to convince the Belgian people that they were a conquered race. The Belgians obstinately refused to be convinced of their defeat. On the contrary, their army of 120,000 men, sheltered behind the forts of Antwerp, marched out and on August 23d drove the Germans from Malines.

The beginning of the offensive was the beginning of a reign of terror in Belgium without parallel in the history of civilized warfare. Belgium was a hive of industry, its fields were tilled like gardens, its little cities were full of precious tokens of the stormy past and the industrious present. Some of the finest stone and brickwork of the Flemish Renaissance was found there and whole streets and towns had apparently come intact from the fifteenth century. Ancient church spires with their famous chimes rose high over the flat landscape, and in town and hamlet alike were masterpieces of Flemish tapestry and painting.

Louvain, the chief university town of Belgium, with its town hall of miraculous architecture and university containing a library full of manuscripts of untold value, and with its Church of St. Peter full of treasures of painting and carving, was systematically looted, its buildings sprayed with paraffin and set on fire.

Malines, a city second only in fame to that of Louvain, was also bombarded and set on fire. Termonde, a city containing many paintings by Van Dyke and Rubens, housed in treasures of architecture, met the same fate, being literally levelled to the ground. Hundreds of little villages were laid waste by systematic bombardment and thoroughly looted. Most of this vandalism had no military purpose. The looting of the Belgian cities would not have been possible had it not been permitted and instigated by officers in command, for the German soldier is too well drilled to disobey his superior officer.

France suffered in like manner from the wanton exponents of German Kultur. The great industrial region of France was along the northern borders invaded by the Germans. In 1912, of the total steam machinery in France amounting to 3,325,000 horsepower, 1,250,184 horsepower was to be found in the invaded region. The great mines at Lens, the linen of Roubaix, Tourcoing and Lille, the woolens of St. Quentin, the steel of Isbergue, the glass of St. Gobain, the woolens and wines of Rheims and many other industries were to be found in that region. Lille and its neighbour cities of Roubaix and Tourcoing, with a joint population of half a million people, was the home of great woolen, cotton, linen, machinery and chemical industries.

When Germany invaded that district she began a system of wholesale pillage. All stocks of raw materials and finished articles in the mills and storehouses were first taken. Then the leather belting, copper and brass fittings were removed together with such looms and machinery as were wanted in Germany. In one factory, to obtain eighteen francs worth of brass 400 spindles worth 8,000 francs were removed; 2,250,000 pounds of copper and brass were taken from the industrial factories of Turcoing alone.

Lille had possessed nine-tenths of the linen industry of France and one-sixth that of the whole world. A certain accredited expert of the German Government, Herr Rover, arrived in Lille and when he was through there was nothing left of the Lille linen factories but the bare walls.

The woolen mills of Tourcoing and Roubaix were also robbed of their looms, the obvious intention being to destroy the French industry and make Germany pre-eminent.

The breweries of Lille and the sugar refineries were also stripped and the great chemical industry of Kuhlman covering twenty-five hectares of ground utterly gutted. In the industrial suburb of Fines, the great locomotive construction workshops, 750 electric motors and even the steel building 480 feet by 90 feet, were dismantled and despatched to Germany. Some machines too heavy to move were destroyed by battering them with a huge piece of steel swung from a travelling crane, while others were torn from their concrete emplacements by the use of the same crane. The damage to tools and machinery in this one shop amounted to $8,000,000.

In the Lens mining region mines were flooded and superstructures and machinery wrecked so that that great industry has been crippled for years to come.

It has been stated that in France, through the war and German occupation, 500,000 buildings were damaged and 250,000 destroyed; $2,000,000,000 worth of damage was done to public works; 1,000 industrial plants supporting 500,000 persons destroyed; 250,000 acres rendered uncultivable by the war; over $200,000,000 worth of coal mining machinery, $120,000,000 worth of cotton and linen machinery, $25,000,000 worth of sugar refining machinery, $50,000,000 worth of electric power machinery, $250,000,000 worth of brewing machinery and $150,000,000 worth of machinery in foundries, etc., was destroyed.

The Germans broke every law, human or divine. The honourable traditions of arms were trampled upon in their brutal and licentious fury. Their insolence, which knew no pity and felt no love, was part of their system of civilization and lust of conquest; it was the result of an arrogance inculcated by the German Emperor, his military chiefs and his professors, which dragged the German name in the dust and left it a thing soiled, mutilated and despised by decent humanity.

Germany was the grandiose realization of Hegel's conception of the State-as-God. The army, which assured the State its power, therefore partook of its divine character. The army, as a sort of divinity, when it imagined it was aggrieved or humiliated, demanded expiation and sacrifice—the sacrifice of flourishing cities or bodies of men and women. Lacking one attribute even of the god of the savages—Justice—it made no distinction between the innocent and the guilty. The Teutonic gods of the past, so revered by the modern Hun, had been noteworthy chiefly for their qualities of savage lust and strength. The explosions of wrath of the German army, involving acts of brutal and capricious fury, which heaped ruin upon ruin, sent whole cities towering skyward in flames, and demanded wholesale sacrifices of innocent blood in Belgium and France, seemed to be those of the reincarnated rude and savage gods of their German ancestors.

SINKING OF THE LUSITANIA

On May 7, 1915, the magnificent Cunard liner *Lusitania* was torpedoed by a German submarine off Kinsale, Ireland. The *Lusitania* had been a great favorite with the travelling public; she was beautifully fitted out and for a while held the record for crossing the Atlantic, her time being four days eleven hours and forty-two minutes—a record only since excelled by the *Mauretania* by one hour.

Consequently when she sailed from New York she carried as usual a large number of passengers—about 1,500 in all—and a crew of some 600, in spite of the notices which appeared in the New York papers and at the docks warning people not to travel by her on that trip.

The *Lusitania* was travelling at a speed of eighteen knots an hour—less than her usual speed of twenty-one knots—which would bring her at the Liverpool bar without stopping and within a couple of hours of high water. The weather was clear and all was running smoothly, when about a quarter after two the second officer saw a torpedo approaching and reported the same to Captain Turner, who also saw it. The vessel was struck amidships and the engines put out of commission. The bulkheads were ordered closed, but the *Lusitania* continued to list to starboard and in eighteen minutes went down.

The vessel was not being convoyed at the time. Nobody had dreamed that Germany would go to the length of torpedoing a passenger ship. Two other ships, the *City of Exeter* and *Narragansett,* received the S.O.S. call of the *Lusitania* and made attempts to reach the sinking vessel but were warned off by submarines.

The total number of lives lost when the ship went down was 1,198 of which 755 were passengers; 124 of these were Americans and included Charles Frohman, the noted theatrical manager; Klein, the dramatist; Elbert Hubbard, the writer; Forman, the author; Vanderbilt, the multimillionaire, and many other noted people.

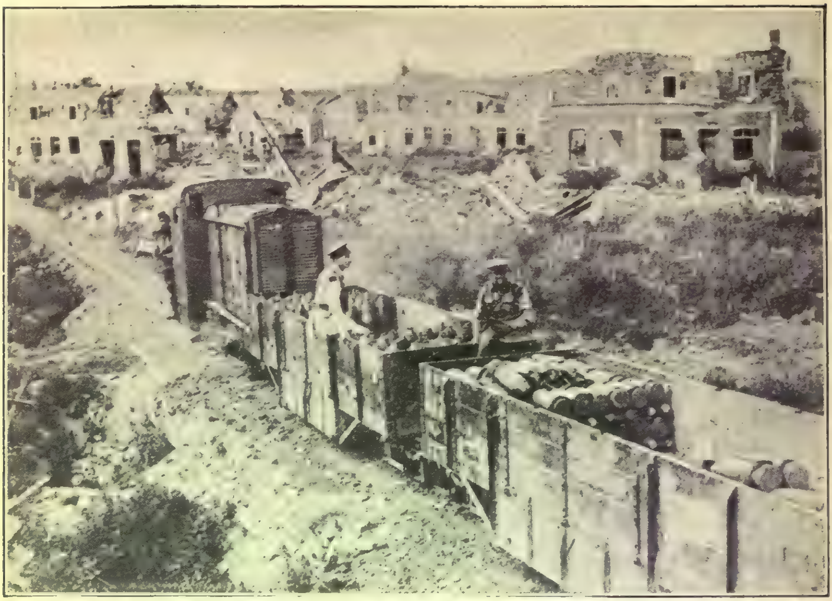
Probably no other single act did so much to open the eyes of the neutral world to the character of the enemy we were fighting. Questions as to the use of poison gas, liquid fire and air raids might perhaps be debated, but as to the right of a combatant to destroy hundreds of innocent men, women and children without question there could be no doubt.

At the front it had a profound effect on our men and many a German might have been taken a prisoner who was thereafter given no opportunity to surrender. The hearts of the allied soldiers were hardened towards an enemy so incapable of pity. And when it became known that a medal had been struck two days before the *Lusitania* had been torpedoed, commemorating the event, men's hearts burned with a deep indignation that such deliberate brutality could be not only condoned but gloried in by any nation.

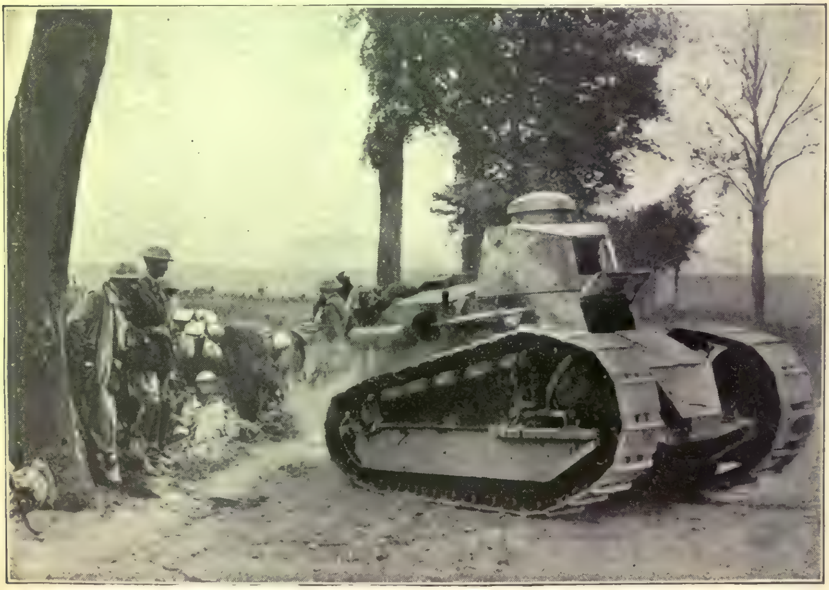
The *Lusitania* was the immediate cause of diplomatic correspondence between Washington and Germany, and proved to be the beginning of the series of events which brought America into the war.

Later on Germany cast all hesitation to the winds and entered upon a wholesale destruction of everything that floated on the high seas. Fleets of innocent fishermen were sunk by enemy submarine gunfire. Trawlers, tramps and sailing vessels, no matter where they came from and what their cargo, were sent to the bottom. Sometimes the crews were given warning and allowed to depart in their small boats, perhaps hundreds of miles from land. Many of these died of exposure. In other cases no warning was given and the ship was torpedoed or shelled. In numerous cases, certified to on oath, the small boats laden with the escaping crews and even survivors swimming in the water were fired upon by the German submarine crews. Cases have been proved where survivors were collected on the U-boat decks and then the latter deliberately submerged.

In one case a German submarine was captured by the British and her crew taken on board before a charge of explosive would send the submarine to the bottom. Sounds of tapping were fortunately heard in time and a number of British sailors locked in a chamber at one end of the submarine were released. The enemy even in the moment of having his own life saved was too con-



AMMUNITION FOR THE GUNS
Canadian narrow-gauge line taking ammunition up the line through a shattered village



CANADIAN BRIGADIER-GENERAL SCOUTS IN A WHIPPET TANK
To see what the enemy was doing and lay his plans, a Canadian general used this modern steel horse which was heavily shelled by the boches as soon as it appeared.

temptible to tell of his prisoners whom he would have allowed to go to their death.

It is true there were some exceptions like that of Weddigen, the submarine commander, but they were rare. Nowhere was the lack of decent tradition more noticeable than among the underwater thugs who seemed to form a considerable part of the U-boat personnel.

Plots against shipping were carried out with all the diabolical ingenuity possessed by the Germans. Most of these were engineered and carried out in the United States while it was still neutral.

Bombs were made, placed in cases and shipped as merchandise on sea-going ships. Four or five days afterwards, time clocks would cause them to explode and set the ship on fire. Four hundred bombs of this variety were made under the direction of a certain von Igel and thirty-three vessels sailing from New York alone were set on fire by them. Similar bombs were placed aboard vessels at New Orleans and other ports. Several of the guilty parties were arrested and sentenced for conspiracy.

Another device invented by Robert Fay, a German officer, was found to be capable of sinking a ship with only forty pounds of contained explosive. The same man and his accomplices were convicted of conspiracy to attach explosive bombs to the rudders of vessels with the intention of wrecking them at sea.

Other schemes included the mixing of high explosive, made up to resemble pieces of coal, with the coal used on board ships so that, on explosion they would wreck the boilers and cause the vessel to blow up. Nothing seemed too low or too contemptible for German agents to attempt in the way of destroying ships.

The understanding among the nations before the war was that mines should be anchored and should be of such a nature that they could never become a permanent menace to navigation. In other words, they were to be so constructed that they would, after a certain length of time, destroy themselves. Floating mines were absolutely forbidden. But, as in many other cases, Germany had her own set of Hague Convention rules and paid no attention to the official ones. She therefore sowed floating mines broadcast in the high seas about Great Britain and also manufactured a type of fixed mine that thus far shows absolutely no sign of deterioration.

Tramp steamers under neutral flags, trawlers and special minelaying submarines deposited these dangerous eggs in huge numbers daily everywhere in the ocean. To offset this practice every suspicious stranger was boarded and examined by the men of our navy, while hundreds of mine sweepers worked away day and night sweeping up those dangerous weapons.

ZEPPELIN RAIDS

In accordance with their avowed policy of terrorizing the British, the Germans, after numerous threats of what they intended to do, began to carry out a series of Zeppelin raids on England. Their usual objective was London, but frequently they lost their bearings and scattered their huge bombs at random over the countryside.

The effect upon the British people was quite the reverse of that expected by the enemy. They felt they were at war and quite enjoyed the sensation of danger. During the first raids it was impossible to keep the populace off the streets of London. Gradually, however, commonsense prevailed, warnings by bugle were sounded half an hour before the raiders were expected, the audiences in theatres and concert halls were advised of the expected attack and the underground railway tubes and other funk-holes were officially recommended.

To see the brilliant white beams of giant searchlights sweeping across the skies, criss-crossing each other, darting from one cloud to another and plainly searching the heavens for the unwelcome interlopers was a never-to-be-forgotten sight.

London rapidly adopted a system of lighting designed to make its great area as inconspicuous as possible but the Zeppelins, apparently using the reflection of the Thames River for a guide, were able to locate its general situation.

Huge numbers of anti-aircraft guns were installed in the parks and suburbs of London and other centres so that when a raid was in progress it sounded like a real battle, the din being indescribable. The descent of the spent shrapnel and shell cases was a real danger to the unsheltered spectator.

The raids were a failure from all standpoints. They neither kept artillery, airplanes or anti-aircraft guns in England, nor did they intimidate the population. The authorities, backed by public opinion, were not stampeded into by-paths but pursued their policy of steadily sending forward all available men, airplanes and material to the front.

Of course a good deal of damage was done, but London, pursuing its every-day occupation, was vastly amused at a Berlin description portraying the metropolis as a heap of ruins.

In all there were fifty-one raids by airships, causing the death of 498 civilians and the injury of 1,236. They were also responsible for the deaths of 58 soldiers and sailors and the injuring of 121.

There were also 59 airplane raids in which 619 civilians were killed and 1,650 injured. In these raids 238 soldiers and sailors were killed and 400 injured.

There were therefore a total of 110 raids and on an average there were 10 civilians and 3 soldiers and sailors killed in each raid.

The greatest losses inflicted by Zeppelins were in raids on Norfolk, Suffolk and the home counties of London on October 13, 1915, when 54 civilians and 17 soldiers and sailors were killed, and in West Suffolk and the Midland counties on January 31, 1916, when 70 civilians were killed and 112 injured. I had arrived that day in England enroute to France from six weeks' leave in Canada, and stopped off at Manchester to hear "As You Like It." The performance had gotten nicely under way when all the lights went out and it was announced that an air raid was in progress. Thereupon the Shakespearian players set to work to amuse the audience and rendered an excellent concert of readings, solos and choral numbers, chiefly old English ballads. After an hour and a half the audience was dismissed with an apology for the failure of the play. Just after the national anthem had been sung with great fervor a shrill female voice, from the top of the gallery, called out: "Are we downhearted?" to which the whole audience roared "No!" The incident was quite characteristic of the British people.

The most serious airplane raid was that of Margate, Essex and London on June 13, 1917, when 158 civilians and 4 sailors and soldiers were killed. The next in severity was that of Kent on September 4th of the same year when 131 soldiers and sailors lost their lives. On that occasion a crowded barrack was hit.

On May 25, 1917, an airplane raid on Folkestone caused the death of 77 civilians and 18 sailors and soldiers. The attack on Kent, Essex and London on January 28, 1918, caused the death of 65 civilians and 2 soldiers and sailors.

NAVAL RAIDS

As described in a former chapter, part of the German fleet made two or three spasmodic attempts to bombard English defenceless towns. In only one of these, that on Hartlepool, Scarborough and Whitby on December 16, 1914, were the casualties heavy. In this bombardment 127 civilians and 10 soldiers and sailors were killed and 567 civilians and 25 soldiers and sailors injured. The remarkable thing about those naval raids was the coolness displayed by the civilian population and the large number of cases of bravery shown by both men and women.

To summarize, there were during the war 5,511 persons in England killed or injured, of whom 4,750 were civilians. The deaths numbered 1,570. Of those killed 554 were men, 411 were women and 295 were children. Whether this was a satisfactory record for five years of continuous effort for the nation which had officially adopted methods of terrorism, we have no means of knowing as yet.

EDITH CAVELL

Miss Edith Cavell, an English nurse working in Belgium hospitals, was arrested by the Germans on the charge of helping English, Belgian and French soldiers to escape. Letters from soldiers and civilians, thanking her for the aid given by her for helping in these escapes, were intercepted and constituted the main evidence against her.

Miss Cavell freely admitted that she had assisted these men; her whole bearing before, during and after the trial indicated that this gentle woman had the courage of a lion.

She was condemned to death on October 11, 1915.

No counsel was allowed to see her before the trial; no lawyer in Brussels would undertake her defence.

The American Minister to Belgium did what he could to avert the crime but without avail. In the eyes of the enemy, as stated subsequently by Zimmerman, the German Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs: "Men and women are equal before the law, and only the degree of guilt makes a difference in the sentence for the crime and its consequences."

An Anglican clergyman was allowed to see her at ten o'clock that night and she was shot by a German firing squad at two o'clock on October 12, 1915.

It was about as stupid a thing as Germany had ever done. It intimidated no one but it sent over the whole world a wave of deep indignation and resentment that lasts to the present day. Patriotism was kindled afresh, recruiting was stimulated and the phrase, "Remember Edith Cavell," stirred our men on the front to fight with even greater determination and a more implacable spirit.

The body of Edith Cavell was brought to England from Belgium on a warship on May 15, 1919. It was transported on a gun carriage with military escort from Victoria Station to Westminster Abbey through streets packed with people; the impressive service was attended by the Royal Family and the great men and women of England.

CAPTAIN FRYATT

An equally stupid act was the murder of Captain Fryatt. This officer commanded the merchant vessel *Brussels*, owned by the Great Eastern Railway. On March 20, 1915, he was summoned by a German U-boat to stop, but instead the gallant captain turned at full speed and tried to ram the submarine, which narrowly escaped by diving. For his brave action he was presented with a gold watch by the mayor and people of Harwich.

On June 23, 1916, Captain Fryatt was captured by the Germans and taken to Zeebrugge. At Bruges he was court-martialled on the charge of attempting to ram the German submarine *U 33*, condemned to death and shot.

In this case German officers may have obtained a little brutal satisfaction, but they awakened such a fierce resentment among British sailors that the game of submarine hunting became almost a naval pastime so hated had the crews of German underwater craft become with their lack of fine traditions of the sea to which British sailors are born and brought up.

These two outstanding incidents together with the destruction of the *Lusitania* and the use of poison gases were probably the most important in developing a deep resentment among the thinking people of the United States and ultimately bringing that nation into the war.

BOMBING OF HOSPITALS

Near the front there were excuses perhaps for bombing ambulances and casualty clearing stations. These were frequently close to military objectives such as railway stations, airplane hangars or ammunition dumps. But further back in areas like Etaples near Boulogne, where the British general hospitals were established—miles from the front—there was no such excuse.

On May 29, 1918, an airplane attack was made on a Canadian hospital at Etaples. Huge bombs went crashing through the roof wrecking the buildings and killing a large number of patients. The building caught fire and it proved exceedingly difficult to get patients out of the upper windows.

Then the enemy airplanes returned to the place and machine-gunned the rescuers, lighting up the area with flares which made everything as light as day. Among those killed were a number of nurses.

There were other instances just as clear-cut as the one narrated where there could not have been the slightest doubt as to the fact that the buildings bombed were hospitals.

Hospital ships were also deliberately sunk in the channel in spite of the agreement made with Germany. The enemy claimed that hospital ships were used for the transportation of troops, but this claim could easily have been disproved and was known to be untrue.

Soldiers crossing the English Channel who have ever seen a hospital ship in the darkness of night passing by in a blaze of light and with a huge electric cross on the side, shining out of the darkness like a magnificent cluster of diamonds, know that the torpedoing of such a vessel was intended to be a deliberate murder. Several hospital ships were so torpedoed with a considerable loss of life among wounded, disabled soldiers.

No method of deliberate frightfulness was more despicable than that which sent unarmed ships bearing wounded soldiers under the protection of the cross recognized as sacred throughout the civilized world to the bottom of the sea.

MINES

Clearing the North Sea of mines promises to be an endless task for British mine sweepers. The menace from these relics of German frightfulness extends from the east coast of England to the Scandinavian coast and is constantly dangerous to all sorts of shipping.

Instances of mines exploding on the coast of England fortunately have been few so far, but those that have drifted in have caused considerable damage. One mine that was discovered at the base of the cliffs at Ramsgate at low tide blew up after the tide rose and shattered windows in buildings on the cliffs over an area of more than a mile and a half.

Despite the fact that the mine was discovered it was considered unsafe even to touch it or make the slightest attempt to move it, because one of the horns was resting against a rock and to move it even a fraction of an inch meant an explosion.

When it is understood that the entire floor of the North Sea is carpeted with mines, which will remain a potential danger to shipping for years to come, some idea may be gleaned of the tasks that confront the mine sweepers. These drifters that are flirting continually with sudden and violent extermination are carrying on a drive for mines much after the manner of a Kansas jack-rabbit drive.

During the early part of 1917 the Germans had at least ten submarine mine-layers operating off the east coast of England. All of these mine-layers were capable of carrying at least twenty-four mines, each mine containing 500 pounds of highest explosive. In the Harwich area, upon which the submarine mine-layers concentrated for a time, three submarines were operating continually.

During the three months ended April 10, 1917, the Germans laid 300 mines in the Harwich area. Practically all these were swept up, and either were sunk to the bottom or exploded. There can be no accurate figures as to how many were exploded and how many sunk, but the proportion would undoubtedly be less than two per cent exploded.

All of the mines that were sunk go to the bottom and drift about with the tide, in many cases coming to rest against a sand bar, an old wreck, or some minor obstacle on the bottom of the

North Sea. It is safe to say that not one mile of the bed of the North Sea between England and Belgium is free from the menace.

POISON GASES

About five o'clock on April 22, 1915, the Germans launched their first gas attack upon the allied lines. The week before a deserter from the German lines in the Ypres salient had warned us of the impending attack but he was not believed.

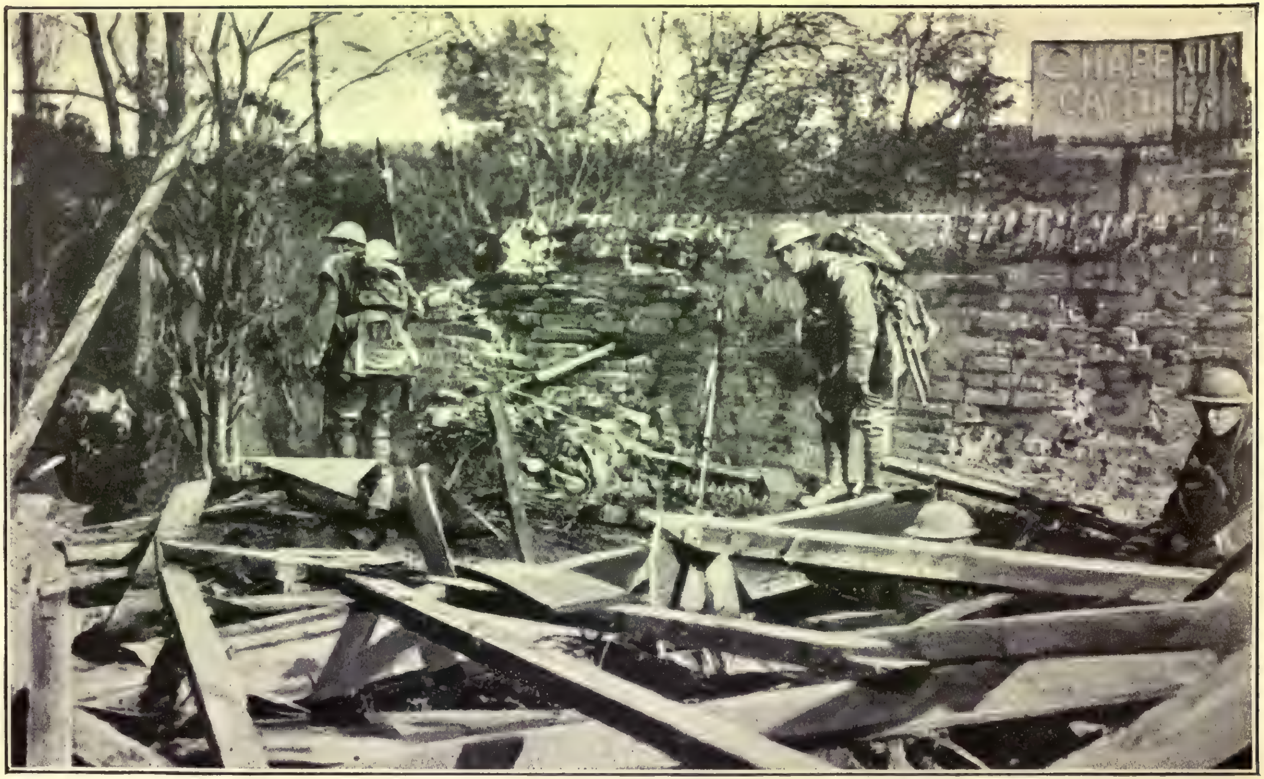
The gas was discharged upon the French line to the left of the Canadians and in a few minutes the French Turcos, dazed and in a state of panic, were passing through our artillery lines. I happened to be present at the moment and saw the occurrence, which will be found described elsewhere.

The Turcos staggered into the ambulances, choking and coughing, with blood-shot eyes and many of them of a ghastly greenish colour. Many a time thereafter I saw, as I did that night, men by the hundred lying in rows in the hospitals, with faces of a blue, green or ashy grey appearance, choking, vomiting and gasping for air. Many of them died, literally from drowning, for their lungs filled with fluid and they died from asphyxiation.

It was another German idea which went wrong. For months they had been experimenting with chlorine gas near the Dutch border. Then liquid gas was brought into the trenches in cylinders and sunk in the parapet. When the wind was favourable and everything ready the cylinders were opened and the gas, under a pressure of about one hundred pounds to the square inch was projected into the air and carried towards the opposite trenches.

Of course the Germans accused the Allies of employing gas first as was their custom when undertaking any new diabolical practice. But the Allies did not use gas until the following autumn, when its continued use by the Germans compelled retaliatory methods.

Doubtless the enemy expected to break the British line, but, as has happened before and since, they seemed so incapable of seizing upon and making use of a success that their grand opportunity went by. They had broken the allied line clean. Had they poured through the breach and rolled up our flanks the Channel ports would have been theirs for the taking. But German



HIDDEN DEATH IN THE RUINS OF VALENCIENNES

Canadian patrol advancing, under cover of a Lewis gun placed amidst the ruins, to keep contact with the fleeing Germans.

caution and German thoroughness lost them their great opportunity. All the German authorities gained was the universal execration of the whole civilized world and, later on, the curses of the German soldiers, for the Allies became more expert in the use of gas than their German teachers.

DEPORTATION OF WOMEN

In April, 1916, the Germans seized and sent away from Lille, Roubaix and Tourcoing about 20,000 women.

They were taken from all classes of homes, collected by night in churches and sent—no one knew whither. The Germans said that they were to work on farms, but there is little doubt that they were employed at everything down to that most offensive and menial of all jobs, the German officer's slave.

The news made French men and women turn white with impotent rage, for they were absolutely powerless to do anything.

In April, 1919, a petition prepared by Madame Calmette and Mrs. Roosevelt, signed by 1,500 women, was handed to the Peace Conference. It said:

> In spite of the most elementary laws of humanity, thousands of women, girls and children of every condition were systematically abducted from their families and were forced to submit to the most odious treatment. We women of France, with bleeding and broken hearts, demand justice from the Peace Conference on behalf of our martyred sisters.
>
> To prevent such crimes from ever being perpetrated again, we demand that those guilty of them be punished like ordinary criminals. We trust you will exact full justice from Germany and her allies. We are nearing the anniversary of the day, April 23, 1916, when that odious deed, against which the women of all nations protest, was carried out, and we firmly trust another year will not elapse before the guilty are punished, both those who issued the order from Berlin and those who executed it in the most brutal way.

Is it little wonder that France, at the Peace Conference, demanded strong guarantees that would lay the German spectre for another century?

CHAPTER XX

Canadian Corps Captures Vimy Ridge

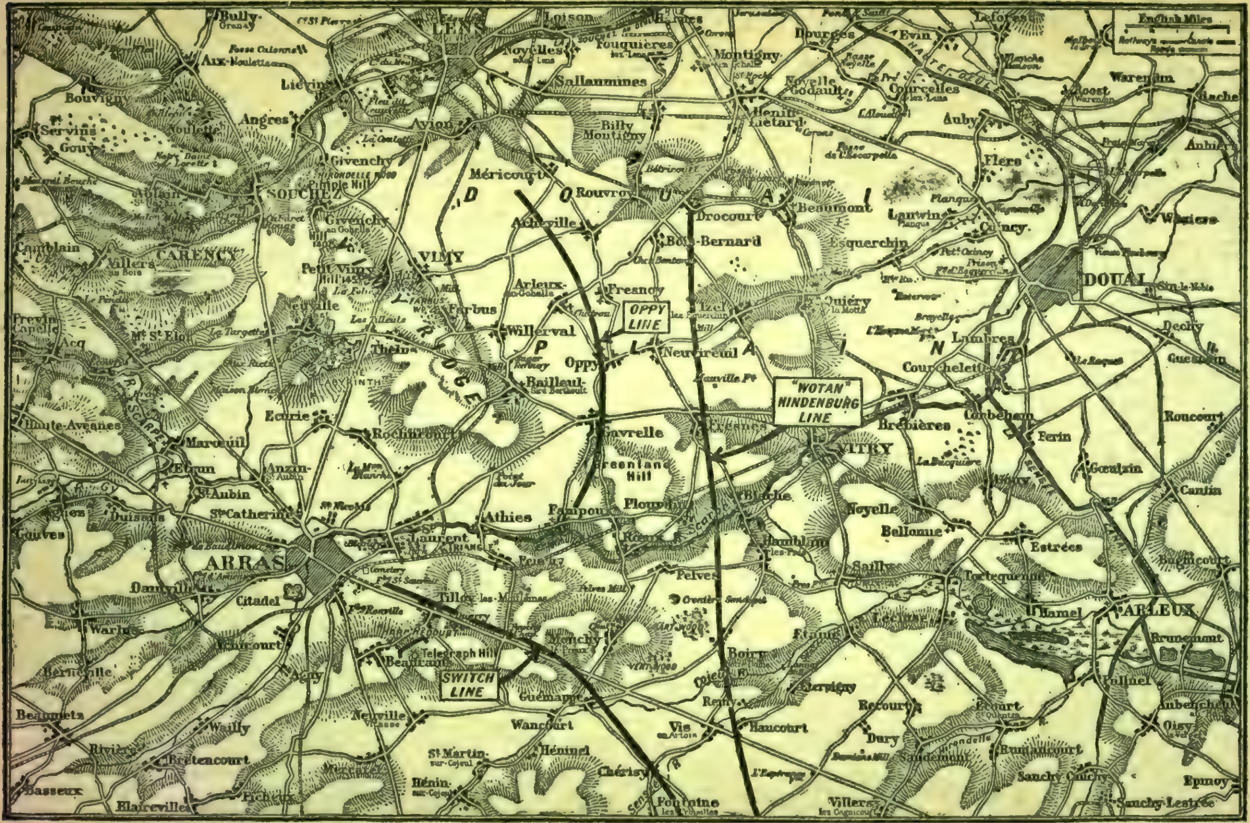
The capture of Vimy Ridge is said to have been the most perfectly organized and successful battle of the whole war. It was worked out on a model and proved to be a model of a successful limited offensive.

The battle took months to prepare and every possible care was taken by the high command to eliminate every possibility of error and to make, in so far as possible, everything favor the Canadian attacking forces.

In the summer of 1916 the Canadians on the Somme had abundantly proved themselves to be successful offensive fighters. It was there decided that the stretch of country from Arras northward, including the bastion of Vimy Ridge, should be the next section attacked. After their Somme experience the battered and weary Canadian corps was moved up to the Vimy front along the line from Ecurie to Souchez. There they spent the late autumn and winter of 1916 on a fairly quiet though muddy sector.

For months the staffs worked away on maps, plans and defences of an attack which was to take place in the spring on this new Canadian front. At the end of the year the four Canadian divisions were withdrawn to distant rest billets. There, day after day for periods of from three to five weeks, the troops were drilled over ground as similar as possible to that of Vimy ridge. During that training the individual soldier knew not only that an attack was impending but he knew the particular piece of ground over which he was to attack. Maps, aerial photographs of the enemy positions, lengthy descriptions of the Hun defences and minute descriptions as to the use of every weapon from hand bombs to the 9.45 "flying pig" trench mortars were distributed to officers and men.

With the aid of maps the engineers laid out on the fields long white tapes to represent exactly the lay of the enemy trenches. By means of coloured flags stuck in the ground, dugouts, machine-



English Miles
LENS
Loison
Bully
Aix-Noulette
Liévin
Angres
Avion
Noyelles
Sallaumines
Fouquières
Montigny
Dourges
Evin
Leforest
Wargnies
Courcelles
Noyelle Godault
Hénin Liétard
Billy Montigny
Méricourt
Rouvroy
Drocourt
Beaumont
Auby
Flers
Lauwin Planque
Cuincy
Esquerchin
DOUAI
Souchez
Givenchy
Pimple Hill
Bouvigny
Servins
Gouy
Carency
Villers
Camblain
Mt. St. Eloi
Acq
Neuville
Thélus
Farbus
VIMY
Petit Vimy
Hill 145
Acheville
Bois-Bernard
Arleux
Fresnoy
OPPY LINE
Izel
Willerval
Oppy
Bailleul
Neuvireuil
Quiéry
Lambres
Courchelettes
Dechy
Guesnain
"WOTAN" HINDENBURG LINE
Brebières
Corbehem
Roucourt
Ferin
Goeulzin
Cantin
VITRY
Gavrelle
Greenland Hill
Plouvain
Fampoux
Roeux
Athies
Ecurie
Roclincourt
Maroeuil
Etrun
Anzin
St. Aubin
Ste. Catherine
Haute-Avesnes
Duisans
Gouves
ARRAS
Dainville
Citadel
St. Laurent
Tilloy-les-Mofflaines
Feuchy
Pelves
Monchy le Preux
Telegraph Hill
Beaurains
SWITCH LINE
Guémappe
Wancourt
Héninel
Chérisy
Fontaine les Croisilles
Vis en Artois
Haucourt
Boiry
Remy
Eterpigny
Récourt
Dury
Saudemont
Ecourt St. Quentin
Rumaucourt
Sailly
Tortequesne
Noyelle
Bellonne
Estrées
Hamel
ARLEUX
Brunémont
Bugnicourt
Palluel
Aubencheul
Oisy
Epinoy
Sauchy Cauchy
Sauchy Lestrée
Villers les Cagnicourt
Warlus
Agny
Berneville
Wailly
Beaumetz
Rivière
Bretencourt
Basseux
Blaireville
Ficheux
Neuville Vitasse
St. Martin sur Cojeul
Hénin sur Cojeul
Scarpe
Sensée
VIMY RIDGE
DOUAI PLAIN

AREA OF THE FIGHTING of THE OLD GERMAN FORTRESS FRONT, BETWEEN LENS AND ARRAS, APRIL 9 TO 14, 1917.
Showing Vimy Ridge, the scene of the great fight

gun posts, minenwerfer positions and other interesting points in the Hun lines were shown.

By the exercise of a little imagination the soldier could stand in the fields on the tape that represented the Canadian front line and "jumping off" place. He could then walk forward over the fields, getting clearly pictured in his mind from the tapes and flags the whole layout of the Hun defences which he was destined to be soon attacking. Each battalion had its ground laid out for it in this fashion, and day after day the battalions did their mimic attack over the fields.

The guns meanwhile were coming in up the line. In the darkness of night field guns and howitzers were dragged forward into their prepared pits and covered over. Vast quantities of ammunition began to fill the gullies and ditches while great dumps grew along the hedges and roadsides. Close to the line hundreds of dumps were prepared where small-arm ammunition, bombs and flares were stored. The ordnance service pushed up as close as possible with vast stores of bayonets, wire cutters, clothing, water bottles and other equipment. The medical corps opened stations in every ruined cellar or dugout it could claim and filled them with bandages and stretchers.

When the trained and rested infantry returned they scarcely knew their old quarters. Numerous neat trenches and plank roads replaced poor, untidy ditches. Where there had been a single gun firing furtively from behind a hedge there were scores of guns scattered all over the district. There were also some monstrous, squat, toad-like guns the like of which had never been seen before. The whole countryside appeared to be covered with dumps, bomb stores and war material, while tens of thousands of shells were piled up everywhere. The area was seething with secret but wondrous activity.

The irregular contours of Vimy Ridge dominated the comparatively flat lands of the Artois between Thelus and Avion, the outskirts of Lens, a distance of about 8,000 yards. It was a naturally strong defensive position converted by the Germans into an almost impregnable bastion, one of the strongest points in their entire system of defences between the Swiss frontier and the sea. Its slopes were laced by deep belts of wire protected by countless machine guns housed in concrete emplacements. Deep tunnels connected the reserve depots in the back country with the forward positions on the ridge, and also with the dugouts—huge excavations in some cases large enough to hold a battalion.

Earlier French and British attacks on the ridge had failed with terrible losses and the Germans were partly justified in their belief that the position was impregnable. This belief the British were unwilling to admit and now, equipped with every mechanical device of warfare, were ready to demonstrate that there was no German system of defence that could not be taken.

The plans involved an attack on a front of twelve miles by four army corps, thirty-eight battalions of which were Scottish. The Vimy Ridge position was confronted by Sir Julian Byng's Canadian corps and one British brigade.

From the third week of March the guns never ceased barking by day or night. Peering over the parapet or through a periscope the infantryman could see the German trenches, laid out as he had seen them back at Houdain, but erupting in pillars of earth and smoke and being obliterated by the deluge of high explosive shells which continuously whistled and whispered overhead. The artillery preparation for the infantry attack was thorough and the whole of the area to be attacked was heaving from the bursts of tens of thousands of shells.

Back at Canadian headquarters all of the preliminary work had been thoroughly co-ordinated and final plans worked out. Every divisional commander had voluminous instructions as to what he was expected to do, and each of his brigadiers, colonels and junior officers knew exactly what was expected of him.

At 5.30 A. M. on April 9th—Easter Monday—a thousand guns opened with a terrific crash upon the German front line. From that moment the earth rocked with the concussion of the artillery discharges and the whole enemy position was wreathed in the flame and smoke of bursting shells, while a snow-storm raged over the battlefields.

There was nothing new in the system of attack except in the perfection of the artillery barrage. Each unit was to advance strictly over the piece of country selected for it, while shell curtains timed to advance in front of it would protect the advancing troops.

Wonderful counter battery work was done and battery after battery of the enemy was put out of action, located partly by direct observation from the air and partly by the new device for sound identification. The air fighting on some of the preceding clear spring days had been of the most desperate character. The Germans in a determined effort to keep us from maintaining our aerial supremacy fought valiantly and accounted for forty-eight of our planes, while they themselves lost forty-six. It was an epoch-making week for the air force and the enemy remained blinded.

When the signal was given the Canadians leaped from their trenches and trudged imperturbably over the shell torn ground after the barrage. The ill-directed fire of the enemy guns in answer to the frantic S.O.S. calls for help was much less effective than the sleet of bullets from rifles and machine guns. Men fell right and left but the advance continued relentlessly. Enemy gun crews and snipers fought to the death, expecting no mercy and receiving none. Mopping-up parties systematically cleared out dugouts and prisoners taken were handed back to the Canadian lines. The enemy refused to stand and fight with the bayonet, a sign that his morale was going. A certain proof of this was furnished by the fact that machine gunners were found chained to their guns. The first, second and successive lines were reached on schedule time, captured and consolidated. The peculiarity of the battle of Vimy Ridge was the number of smaller engagements which took place in the main operation. Practically every company, within certain limits, fought its own fight in its own way and won its victory independently. One of the great reasons for success was the rapidity of the allied advance. From the German point of view the battle seemed to consist of a curtain of shells which suddenly deluged their trenches, and beyond that curtain was another curtain creeping forward slowly, deliberately and relentlessly across "No Man's Land."

Then as that second curtain reached their position it suddenly lifted and the Canadian and British troops were upon them. There was no time for organization or defence; those in the deep dugouts, serenely unconscious of impending disaster, were given their first intimation that an attack was under way by the appearance of mopping-up parties, well loaded with bombs. By April 11th the whole of Vimy Ridge was securely in Canadian hands, together with 4,000 prisoners and a large number of guns which General Byng formed into a "first, second and third Pan-German group."

Vimy Ridge proved, as all other engagements before and since have proved, that, man for man, the Canadian had nothing to fear from personal contact with the enemy. The second battle of Ypres proved that humanity was greater than metal! Vimy Ridge proved that some races of humanity are distinctly inferior to others. It confirmed the conviction of those who before the war believed that the individuality of a peaceful population, strengthened and developed by loyalty, was better fighting material than a military ridden country could ever produce.

And it showed that thereafter, given equality of men and metal, the issue of any battle would never be in doubt, even when, as the following report issued by the German headquarters, and taken from a captured German officer showed, the enemy knew exactly what preparations were being made and was prepared for the attack:

79th Reserve (German) Division Headquarters
1 a-01 477-170-S. 30/3/17

RÉSUMÉ OF SITUATION

On both sides of Arras and on the northern flank of the Siegfried Line there is a very marked concentration of British troops. An equal concentration of French troops has been noticed on the southern flank of the Siegfried Line (Drocourt-Queant Line) in the Eisenlbogen between Berry-au-Bag and Vailly.

SPRING OFFENSIVE

The spring offensive of the Entente that was to be expected will most probably be staged in this vicinity, perhaps with the intention of turning the Siegfried Line (Drocourt-Queant Line) and thereby defeat its purpose. North of Arras the British will be forced, according to the nature of the ground, to deliver a joint attack on the long narrow Vimy Ridge, the possession of which gives them command of the high ground in this vicinity and would also be a safeguard against German attacks on the left British flank near Arras.

Opposed to the division (79th Reserve) are Canadian troops. The 3d Canadian division on the right flank of the division (79th Reserve Division) came into the line about the middle of March. Recent identifications place the 2d Canadian Division on the left divisional flank. The extreme flanks of the Canadian corps have closed in towards the centre so that the Canadian corps now occupy a smaller front than it did a few weeks ago. The corps is now echelonned in depth and this formation points to operations on a large scale. Behind the front line near Mont St. Eloy extensive billets for troops have been erected and this also points to a strong concentration, and that troops are holding the front in depth. The Canadians are known to be good troops and are, therefore, well suited for assaulting. There are no deserters to be found amongst the Canadians.

HOSTILE ARTILLERY

Hostile artillery has visibly increased during the past weeks, numerous new batteries, especially medium calibre, have been identified.

HOSTILE DEFENCES

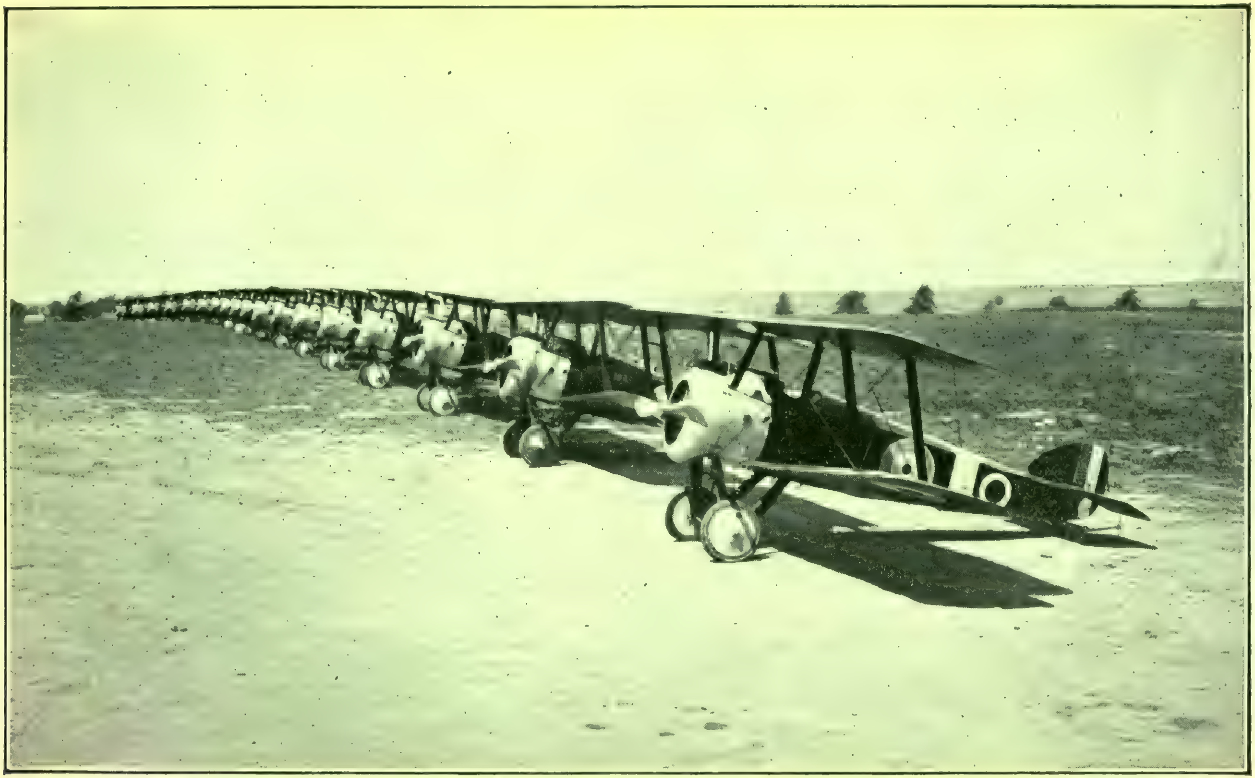
The repair work done on the hostile trenches also points to a planned offensive. From patrol reports the latest aeroplane photographs show that new saps are being pushed forward, especially in the Fischer sector (Bauble trench to Durand crater). The distance between the lines in this sector was formerly about 200 metres but now a new position has taken shape about 100 metres from the German Line, which consists of three lines of trenches very close together. This new system is connected to the rear by many communication trenches and is a typical example of jumping-off trenches similar to those already used by the French in the Champagne in 1915. Men are reported to be busy at work on the trenches. New sandbag structures and new chalk heaps are continually being seen, probably due to the construction of trench mortar emplacements, etc. Also much spoil is visible caused by pushing forward mine galleries.

The German positions have during the past week been vigorously bombarded. Heavy artillery and minenwefer fire has been brought to bear on the Fischer sector (Bauble trench to Durand crater) and gradually extended to both flanks of the division. The continued artillery activity on this front has made it impossible to reclaim damaged trenches and the communication trenches have also suffered considerably. D. P.'s have been systematically bombarded; heavy artillery fire has been directed on the back areas and battery positions. During the past few days the villages on the back country up to a distance of ten kilometres have been severely bombarded. It appears, taking everything into consideration, that a programme of systematic destruction of artillery positions, dugouts, rearward communications and front line, particularly on both divisional flanks, has been put into force. If there are no signs of an immediate attack, still, it is very certain that the Canadians are planning an attack on a large scale in the immediate future, and both flanks of the division can be considered as the chief points where an attack will be pushed home. The statement of a prisoner captured early today that the attack was to take place between the 20th of March and 6th of April confirms the above.

(Signed). VON BACHMEISTER.

THE SURRENDER OF GENERAL TOWNSHEND

At the end of November, as we have seen, the small British army under General Townshend was surrounded by the Turkish



Canadian Official Photograph. *Copyright Reserved.*

FIGHTING PLANES OF CANADIAN OFFICERS

The machines of a Royal Air Force Squadron in France. It was in such planes as this that Canada's aces achieved deathless glory in battle against the Hun.

army at Kut, a town situated in a loop of the Tigris River. British re-enforcements were being rushed from India, and Turkey, also realizing the importance of the situation, despatched Marshall Von Der Goltz to take command of their forces.

The British relieving force, consisting of 90,000 men under the command of General Sir Percy Lake, began its advance on January 6th and two days later defeated the enemy in two battles. On January 22d the British again attacked entrenched Turkish positions at Ummel-Hanna, but on account of the heavy rain and the sodden nature of the ground failed to dislodge the enemy, equal in numbers to themselves.

On March 7th a flanking movement failed to dislodge the Turks, and, on account of the Tigris floods, nothing more could be done until April. Repeated attacks on both banks of the river for eighteen consecutive days had failed to oust an enemy remarkable in his aptitude for trench fighting, and the relieving force, worn out with continuous fighting and climatic conditions, could do nothing further.

The beleagured British garrison at Kut-el-Amara, after a resistance of 143 days, surrendered, with its garrison of 3,000 English and 6,000 Indian troops.

The heroic features of the siege had seldom been equalled. Knowing that a relieving force was on its way the Townshend garrison at first did not worry, but later on hunger forced them to kill their horses and mules for food. Airplanes dropped tobacco and small quantities of food but no real relief was experienced from that quarter. Finally the defenders became so weak from starvation that there was no alternative but surrender.

The blow at England's prestige in the East created an uproar in England and to appease public criticism a commission of enquiry was appointed. Their report stating that the expedition, though perhaps justifiable from a political point of view, had been undertaken with inadequate preparation and forces, created a sensation. Sir John Nixon, who had urged the expedition; Sir Beauchamp Duff, Commander-in-Chief of the British Forces in India; Lord Hardinge, Sir Edmund Barrow, Military Secretary of the India Office in England, and J. Austen Chamberlain, Secretary for India, were all severely criticized.

In consequence Mr. Chamberlain resigned, though Lord

Hardinge, the Under Secretary of Foreign Affairs, was absolved from responsibility by Parliament.

Under the command of Lieutenant-General Maude a new British expedition was carefully organized. On February 26th Kut was recaptured and the British advanced steadily up the Tigris towards Bagdad, overcoming all enemy resistance. On March 7th the Turks blocked four attempts to cross the River Diala, eight miles below Bagdad, but a crossing was effected two days later and on March 11th the city of Bagdad was occupied by the British.

From the political standpoint the fall of Bagdad was a great event, for it demonstrated to the Oriental mind once more that the Britisher is never beaten, that there seemed to be no limit to the number of times he would return until his purpose had been realized. It was another proof of the power of the British army.

UNIVERSITY OF ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE
LIBRARY

NASMITH, COL. GEORGE

Canada's Sons in the
World War

D
547
.C2N3
Vol. 1